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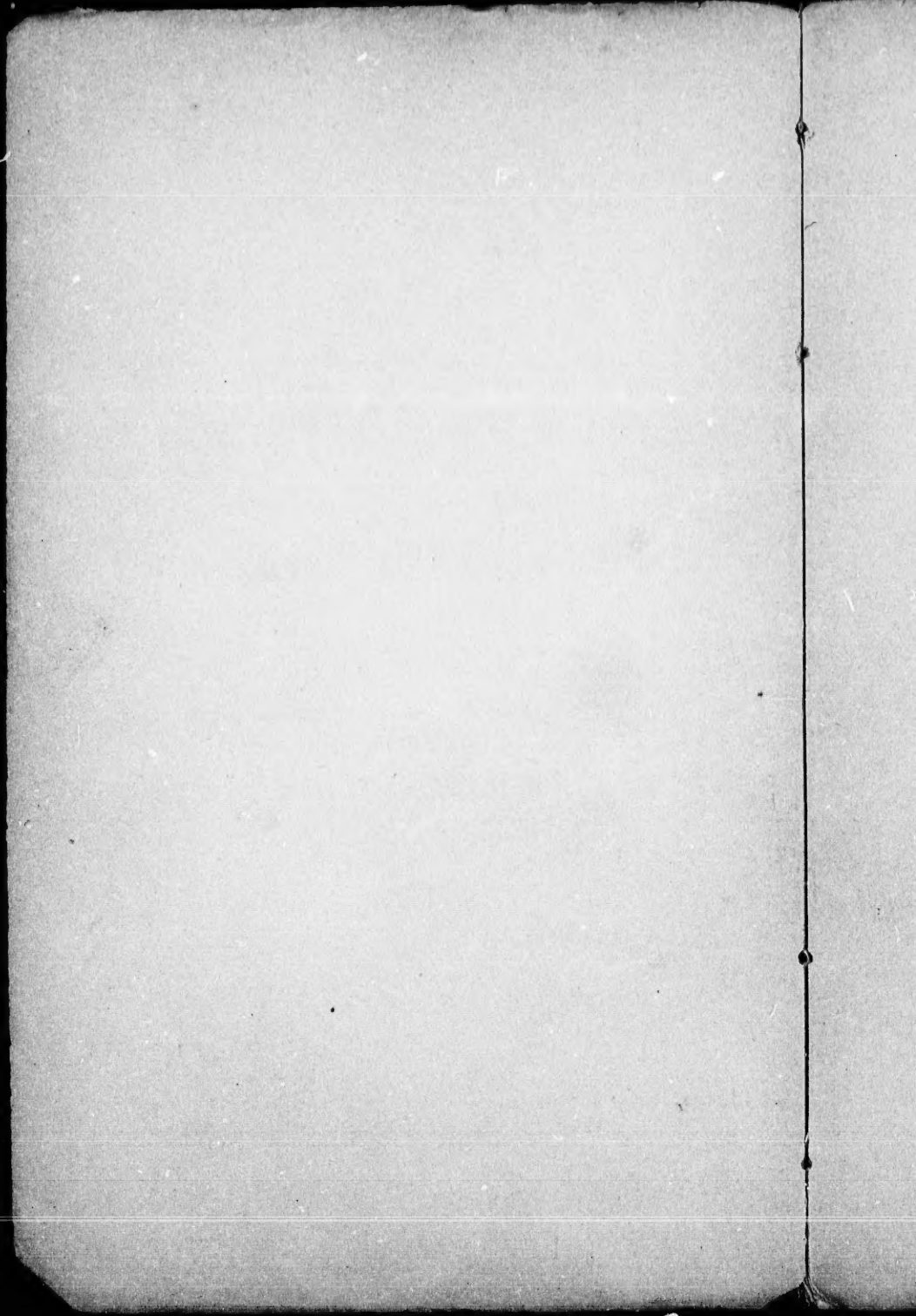
THE
EMIGRANT'S MANUAL
OF
AMERICA



WILLIAM AND ROBERT CHAMBERLAIN
LONDON AND NEW YORK

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THE
EMIGRANT'S MANUAL
AMERICA.

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A M E R I C A .

EMIGRATION DISTRICTS.

AMERICA consists of two great divisions, North and South America, united by an isthmus or neck of land. South America having been settled by the Spanish and Portuguese nations, is unsuitable for purposes of emigration from Britain. North America, with the exception of Mexico, having been settled by the English, is on that account, as well as its generally temperate climate, the field to which the emigrant will more properly direct his attention.

America is bounded on the east by the Atlantic, and the west by the Pacific Ocean. Along its shores on the east lie various islands; as, for example, the West India group, and the Bahamas. Although these islands present scope for trading enterprise, and also, in some places, for agricultural operations and for fishing, they do not come under the character of emigration fields, and therefore need not form a feature of our present inquiry. The districts requiring notice are chiefly those on the mainland of North America, and of these only a select portion come within our present object.

The two great emigration fields in North America are the British possessions and the United States. The British possessions consist of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia—the latter including Prince Edward's Island. There is, indeed, another large tract of country belonging to Great Britain—namely, the Hudson's Bay Territory; but it is situated in the extreme north; and being occupied almost exclusively by hunters in quest of furs, is not available for regular settlement. On the west coast lies Vancouver's Island, which also belongs to Great Britain: it has latterly

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been opened for immigration, and will afterwards be noticed; also some minor British fields of emigration.

While the United States occupy the southern and middle regions of North America, the British possessions are in the north. Each faces the Atlantic; but the United States, besides having a very extensive front to this ocean, stretch across the continent at its broadest part, and present a border to the Pacific. The breadth of land, drawing a straight line across the United States, is 3000 miles—an extent as great as the breadth of the Atlantic. Settled by parties of colonists principally under charters from Elizabeth and James I., North America has now been occupied by an English people for a period of 250 years; and is therefore entitled to be called an old country. Yet such is its vast size, that it is filled up to a comparatively small extent. The settled population extend, in diminishing density, only about half-way across the continent to the Pacific, on which, as yet, there are only two or three settlements—one of these being the recently-established district of California. Although emigration to North America is proceeding at the rate of about 250,000 per annum, the accession is scarcely observable. Ample space is afforded for all the inhabitants of Europe, and still there would be room to spare.

North America differs in many respects from the other quarters of the globe. Nature is on a great scale. The dimensions of the country, magnificent in their extent, are a type of its leading features—vast rivers and lakes, resembling inland friths and seas; lofty mountain-ranges, boundless forests, and far-stretching prairies. The climate of so extensive a region is as varied as that which prevails in Europe from Russia to the Mediterranean. In the north, long winters and short fierce summers; in the south, the genial temperature of the tropics, and frost scarcely known.

With the political history of North America all readers will be less or more familiar. Only a few facts may here be noted. The early English colonists had to contend first with intractable tribes of native Indians, and with the aggrandising efforts of the French, who formed a line of settlements from Canada to Louisiana. By a series of military campaigns, England defeated the French, took the most of their settlements, and added them to the group of colonies. By what has ultimately proved a fortunate event for America and England, thirteen of the British American colonies revolted, gained their independence, and established themselves as the United States, to which fresh additions have since been made. In this revolution of affairs the more northern colonies did not participate, and till this day they yield allegiance to the British crown. By the establishment of independence, the revolted

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colonies entered on a career of prosperity and development of national vigour to which they could have had no prospect under the deadening tutelage of foreign control. The only subject of lamentation is the violence with which American independence was achieved, and the humiliation to which Great Britain was on the occasion exposed—circumstances which have left an unhappy impression on the traditions of the country that will not be soon obliterated.

It will be seen, from these observations, that North America offers two distinct fields of emigration: one—namely, the British Possessions, in which the emigrant from the United Kingdom will remain a subject of the crown, with all the attendant privileges of that character; the other being the United States, in which he becomes a citizen of a new power, and cuts all political connection with the country of his fathers. Let it be understood, however, that citizenship in the great North American republic infers to the poor man a certain gain in personal consequence, and that as the language, literature, and social usages of the States are English, the exchange of country will cause no essential inconvenience. The expense of transit to the British possessions and to the States differs in so small a degree as to form no matter for serious consideration. One peculiarity attends emigration to both countries: this consists in the difficulty in reaching any suitable spot of settlement in the interior regions, after arriving at the place of landing. For the most part, as will be shewn under the proper heads, the emigrant who designs to be a cultivator of the soil has to travel by canal, or some other means, several hundreds of miles to the interior; so that the cost of this inland journeying requires to be added to the expense of sea-passage, which it will generally double. Hence, although America is very much nearer to Great Britain than Australia, the actual money-outlay and loss of time incurred by the emigrant may be nearly as great in going to the one as to the other. An exception to this general difficulty of reaching emigration fields in North America exists in the case of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward's Island, and New Brunswick, all close upon the Atlantic. On this account these regions may be said to offer the *readiest* spot for settlement to which the emigrant can look—a circumstance of no small importance to the agriculturist with limited means at his disposal.

The population of the whole British North American possessions may be estimated at two and a quarter millions. This is a population less than that of Scotland for a country larger than Great Britain, and equally fertile. Three things have materially retarded settlement in these possessions—their general inaccessibility, the prevalence of dense forests, and the inclemency of their winters,

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during which outdoor labour is suspended, and live-stock require to be housed. In consequence of the severity of the frost, all communication by water is closed during a considerable part of the year. To obviate this impediment, a railway has been proposed to be formed from a point on the coast, running through New Brunswick and Lower Canada towards the upper country, where settlers will locate. Surveys have been made of the proposed line, but as yet no commencement of this great work has been made.

All countries lying in a state of nature, and covered with primitive forests, possess a climate which ranges in extremes—fiercely hot summers and intensely cold winters. Such is the case to a remarkable degree with the climate of America in its more northern parts. Instead of that diffusive moderation which characterises the climate of similar latitudes in Europe, we find the North American climate ranging from the cold of the polar regions to the heat of the tropics. All, therefore, who are unprepared to endure great extremes should refrain from going to America. The extremes here spoken of, however, are not considered to be more injurious to health than the climate of the British islands, where, with a moderate temperature, there is a continual shifting from wet to dry, from haze to sunshine. The very cold winters of North America are always spoken of as periods of exhilaration; in commerce and agriculture they are inconvenient, but in matters of social concern they are generally preferred to those broken, plashy winters of England, which are so productive of bronchial and other affections.

Money.—Money may be safely transferred to North America, by depositing any given amount in banks in Great Britain, and receiving in exchange bills on certain banks in America, which will be paid on being presented. If cash in large sums be taken by emigrants, there is a chance of losing it; whereas, if bank-bills be lost, their payment can be stopped until fresh bills are procured. The principal Scotch banks grant unexceptionable bills of this kind. Whether bills or cash be taken, they will bring a somewhat higher value than they bear in England.

In the United States, the circulating medium is dollars in silver, resembling crown-pieces. The dollar, as will afterwards be more specially mentioned, is reckoned to be worth about 4s. 2d. English. In the dollar are reckoned 100 cents. The copper cent is about the value of a halfpenny. The United States abound in bank-notes of the denomination of a dollar and upwards; great caution will be required in taking this paper money.

The British American possessions have also a peculiar currency. The same denominations are employed as in England, but the

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value is different. The money of Canada and the other colonies is stated in Halifax currency, which is 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. inferior to sterling money. Thence 5s. currency is equal to 4s. 2d.; £1 currency is equal to 16s. 8d.; and £100 currency is equal to £83, 6s. 8d. The English sovereign is valued at £1, 4s. 4d.; the crown at 6s. 1d.; and the shilling at 1s. 3d. All prices and wages are of course reckoned in currency. Therefore when a working-man is told he will receive 4s. a day of wages, the actual value of this 4s. is only 3s. sterling. This distinction between sterling and currency will soon be learned, and is of less consequence to the labouring-classes than the practice of paying wages in goods. The most serious complaints are made on this subject. From all we can learn, it is not unusual for an employer, in places remote from towns, to pay his workmen by an order for goods on a store corresponding to the amount bargained for; and such is the high price at which articles are generally sold when such orders are presented, that sometimes a workman, instead of getting 4s. a day, does not in reality get more goods than he could buy in England for 1s. 6d. Thus an apparently high sum dwindles down to a trifle. Emigrants will require to be on their guard against these practices; they will ascertain whether they are to be paid in money or goods, and act accordingly.

Recent Emigration.—The rate of emigration to North America has been stated to be about 250,000 per annum. Much the larger portion of this flood of emigrants is to the United States, and chiefly through New York. From whatever country they come, the emigrants are welcomed, and acquire the right of citizenship. About three-fifths of the emigrants are from England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, but chiefly from Ireland. The remaining two-fifths are from Germany, Holland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and France—principally from Germany. There is no accurate statement respecting the final settlement of emigrants; many who land at New York settle in Canada, and many who arrive at Quebec and Montreal push across Canada to the States. Only one thing is certain: the United States are preferred by the larger number, and not very much in consequence of the more easy acquisition of land. Political considerations are not believed to exert any preponderating influence on the minds of the emigrating classes.

Passage.—Emigrant ships for America sail from almost every port of any consequence; and advertisements of their period of departure may be seen in any newspaper. At each principal port is a government emigration agent to superintend the shipping of emigrants. He may be applied to in the event of any necessity for seeking counsel or redress. The charge for a cabin passage,

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including provisions, to Quebec, New Brunswick, or New York, is from £12 to £20. For an intermediate cabin passage, with provisions, £7 to £10; without provisions, £5 to £7. For a steerage passage, with full allowance of provisions, £5 to £6; without provisions beyond the legal allowance, £3 to £4. The passages are cheapest from the Irish ports; but the crowding is usually greater, and the accommodation less comfortable. The best season to emigrate to America is in March or April.

Lumber Trade.—Formerly persons emigrated to the British American colonies with a view to cutting down timber, and selling it to merchants for shipment to Great Britain. This lumber trade attained importance in consequence of the admission of colonial timber at a considerably less duty than foreign timber. Alterations in the timber-duties have nearly ruined this trade; and for this cause, as well as the dissolute character of the lumbering profession, emigrants are cautioned against adventuring in it.

Cautions and Advices.—By the Emigration Commissioners the following cautions and advices are published relative to the passages of emigrants to any of the North American colonies, and the means of settlement:—

'Caution against proceeding to New Brunswick, &c. via Quebec.—Emigrants whose destination may be New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, or Nova Scotia, are particularly cautioned against taking passage to Quebec, as there are no regular means of conveyance from that port to any of the Lower Provinces. The charge of passage, by occasional schooners, is to Miramichi, New Brunswick, 15s.; to Prince Edward's Island, 20s.; to Halifax, Nova Scotia, 25s. each adult, without provisions: length of passage from ten to twenty days. The route to St John, New Brunswick, is much more difficult, as vessels seldom leave Quebec direct for that port, and the general mode of conveyance is by schooner to Miramichi, and thence by land. Several weeks may elapse without a vessel offering for any of these ports.

'Caution to keep Contract Tickets.—Emigrants ought to keep possession of their contract tickets, as otherwise, in the event of the ship's being prevented by any accident from reaching her destination, or of the passengers, for any other reason, not being landed at the place named in the tickets, they may have a difficulty in obtaining a return of their passage-money, to which in that case they would by law be entitled.

'Caution to provide Means for Subsistence and Transport after Arrival.—Many emigrants having latterly been found to rely on public funds for their assistance in the colonies, they are hereby warned that they have no claim of right on such fund, and they should provide themselves with sufficient means of their own for their subsistence and conveyance into the interior from the port where they land.

'In Canada, a recent law expressly prohibits relief from the

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Emigrant Tax Fund, excepting in cases of sickness on the part of destitute emigrants.

'Tools.—It is not generally considered desirable that agricultural labourers should take out implements of husbandry, as these can be easily procured in the colonies; but artisans are recommended to take such tools as they may possess, if not very bulky.

'Time to arrive in the Colony.—The best period is early in May, so as to be in time to take advantage of the spring and summer work, and to get settled before the winter sets in.

'Average Length of Passage.—To Quebec, 40 days; Prince Edward's Island (say) 40 days; Nova Scotia, 38 days. By the Passengers' Act, provisions are, however, required to be laid in for seventy days, to which period passages are sometimes protracted.'

Caution not to refuse good Wages.—Until emigrants become acquainted with the labour of the country, their services are of comparatively small value to their employers. They should therefore be careful not to fall into the common error of refusing reasonable wages on their first arrival.

Route for Emigrants to Canada.—Emigrants intending to settle in Canada will find it in all respects more advantageous to proceed by Quebec.

As there is competition among the steamboat companies at Quebec and the forwarding companies at Montreal, emigrants should exercise caution before agreeing for their passage, and should avoid those persons who crowd on board ships and steamboats, offering their service to get passages, &c.

Emigrants destined for Upper Canada are advised not to pause at Quebec or Montreal, but to proceed at once on their journey. If, however, they require advice or direction, they should apply *only* to the government agents, who will furnish gratuitously all requisite information.

Steamers leave Quebec for Montreal every afternoon at five o'clock (Sundays excepted), calling at Three Rivers, Port St Francis, and Sorel, and arrive early the next morning.* The royal-mail steamers leave the Lower Canal Basin every day at half-past ten o'clock for Kingston, calling at all the intermediate places on the route, and completing the passage in about twenty-six hours. The mail steamers leave Kingston every evening at five o'clock, after the arrival of the boats from Montreal, calling at Coburg, Port Hope, Toronto, Hamilton, Niagara, and Queenston. The steerage passage by this line of steamers from Quebec to Hamilton, a distance of 580 miles, is 21s. 6d. currency, or 17s. 2d. sterling; time, 3 days.

Steamers and screw-propellers leave Montreal every afternoon for Toronto and Hamilton, and all the intermediate landing-places; passage from Montreal to Toronto or Hamilton, 15s. currency, or 12s.

* The competition hitherto maintained upon this portion of the main Canadian route has very much influenced the fare for this passage; but it has seldom exceeded 3s. 9d. currency in the steerage, and during the greater part of the season of 1849 it was as low as 1s. sterling each person.

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sterling each adult; and occasionally, during the summer of 1850, this class of steamers was running direct between Quebec and Hamilton. They are longer on the route than the mail steamers; but emigrants are carried much cheaper, and they avoid all the expense of transshipment.

Steamers occasionally proceed direct from Quebec, and goods and passengers are now conveyed in them from the ship's side at Quebec, without transshipment, through the St Lawrence and Welland ship canals, to any of the ports on Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, or Michigan. The navigation thus opened from Quebec to Chicago, on Lake Michigan, in the state of Illinois, is about 1600 miles, and the time occupied in the transit would be about ten days. The expense during the season of 1849, from Quebec to Cleveland in Ohio, is stated to have been about six dollars, or 24s. sterling per adult; and it is anticipated that even this charge will be hereafter reduced. The steamers touch at the ports of Cleveland, Sandusky (whence there is a railway to Cincinnati), and Toledo in Ohio district, in Michigan and Milwaukee in Wisconsin. The entire length of the Welland and St Lawrence Canals is 66 miles.

The dimensions of the locks on the former are 50 feet long by 26½ feet wide, and on the latter 200 feet by 45. They are therefore capable of admitting vessels from 300 to 400 tons burden, carrying from 4000 to 5000 barrels of flour. The length of the Erie Canal, in the state of New York, is 363 miles, with a lockage of 688 feet. It is navigable by vessels carrying from 600 to 700 barrels of flour. There are eighty-four locks, each 90 feet long by 15 feet wide, with a draught of 4 feet water. From Quebec to Cleveland the expense is supposed to be less than from New York to Cleveland; as on the latter route there are at least two transshipments, and the time required for the journey is a week longer.

Steamers leave Montreal daily for Bytown, through the Rideau Canal, to Kingston. This route is seldom used but by travellers to the Ottawa or Bathurst district.

The probable expense of provisions may be taken at 1s. per day. The expense of lodging is from 4d. to 6d. per night.

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PARTICULARS OF ROUTE FROM QUEBEC TO HAMILTON.

Usual Route for Emigrants.	Distance.	Fare per Adult.	Charge for Baggage.	Time on Journey.
	Miles.	Currency.		
From Quebec to Montreal, calling at Three Rivers—about 81 miles; Port St Francis, 90 miles; and Sorel, 135, -	180	s. d. 3 9	{ No charge.	{ About 14 hours.
From Montreal to Kingston, <i>via</i> St Lawrence,	190	10 0	{ 2s. 6d. per cwt.	{ Say about 30 hours.
From Kingston to any Port on the Bay of Quinté,	35 to 70	3 6
From Kingston to Coburg, or Port Hope, -	100	5 0	...	{ About 9 hours.
From Kingston to Toronto,	180	10 0	...	{ About 18 hours.
From Kingston to Hamilton,	220	12 6	...	{ About 22 hours.
Total from Quebec to Hamilton,	500	26 3	...	{ About 3 days

From Kingston to Darlington, Whitby, or Bond Head, 7s. 6d.; Oakville, 12s. 6d. To Niagara or Queenston, 13s. 9d.; and to Ports Burwell and Stanley, on Lake Erie, by schooners through the Welland Canal, 7s. 6d. to 10s. Land-carriage from 1d. to 2d. per mile. The rates here given are for adults or persons above twelve years; for children between twelve and three years of age, half-price is charged; and children under three years go free. One hundred-weight of luggage allowed to each passenger.

ROUTE FROM MONTREAL TO BOSTON AND NEW YORK.

	Distance.	Fare.
	Miles.	Currency.
By the Champlain and St Lawrence Railway Company, <i>daily</i> :—		
To St John, by steamer and railway (twice a day), -	25	s. d. 2 6
To Burlington, Vermont, by steamer,	100	6 3
... Whitehall by steamer,	150	10 0
... Troy and Albany, <i>via</i> Whitehall,	253	13 9
... New York, -	390	16 3
... Boston, <i>via</i> Burlington, -	320	30 0

CANADA.

THE line of division betwixt the British possessions and the United States is either the River St Lawrence and the lakes whence it proceeds, or an ideal and mutually-arranged boundary. Canada is bounded on the east by the Gulf of St Lawrence and Labrador; on the north by the territories of the Hudson's Bay Company; on the west by the Pacific Ocean; on the south by Indian countries, parts of the United States, and New Brunswick. Until a recent period, Canada was divided into two provinces—Lower and Upper: the Lower being that which was first reached on sailing up the St Lawrence. Now they are united under one local government; nevertheless, they are still spoken of as two distinct sections, with the appellations of Canada East and Canada West—the last mentioned being what was known as Upper Canada. The line of division between the two districts is in one part the Ottawa or Grand River. A considerable portion of Eastern Canada lies on the south side of the St Lawrence, but the whole of Western Canada is north of that river, and of the lakes communicating with it. As Canada tends in a southerly direction towards the interior, it necessarily follows that the Lower or Eastern district, which is first reached by the St Lawrence, is more northerly than the Western. The entire length of Canada may be estimated at 1000 miles, and its breadth 300.

The grand feature of the country is its water-courses. By looking at the map, it will be perceived that there is a series of large lakes communicating with each other: these are unequalled by any inland sheets of water in the world, and are entitled to the appellation of fresh-water seas, for they are not only of great extent, but are liable to be affected by storms like the ocean itself. The uppermost, called Lake Superior, is 381 miles long, and 161 broad; Huron, 218 miles long, and from 60 to 180 broad; Erie, 231 long, and about 70 in breadth; Ontario, 171 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The waters of Lake Erie, on issuing from its lower extremity, form a river of above 30 miles in length, and

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varying from three miles to a quarter of a mile in breadth, which in its course is precipitated over a precipice to a depth of 165 feet, thus making the famed cataract or Falls of Niagara. The river is, at the distance of a few miles below, received by Lake Ontario, whence issues the River St Lawrence, one of the largest streams in the world, and which, after a course of above 2000 miles from its head waters above Lake Superior, falls into the Atlantic. This majestic river, which is 90 miles wide at its mouth, and for some distance upwards varying from 60 to 24 miles, is navigable for ships of the line for 400 miles from the ocean. In its upper parts, above Montreal, which, next to Quebec, is the chief port for ocean vessels, its navigation is impeded by *rapids*, or the rushing of the stream down rocky inclined planes. But these impediments are obviated by means of canals recently cut; and thus there is now a continued water-communication for vessels from the Atlantic up into the interior, so far as the foot of Lake Superior, where a series of rapids impede the entrance into that lake, and only requiring a short canal of about half a mile to complete the vast chain of inland navigation. The Welland Canal, a magnificent undertaking, connects Lakes Erie and Ontario, and affords a passage for vessels of large size. Lake Erie is also connected by a canal with the Hudson, a river of the United States, which also falls into the Atlantic. The River Ottawa is next to the St Lawrence in point of size, and is tributary to it. It falls into the north side of the St Lawrence, near Montreal. The Grand River, formerly known as the Ouse, which falls into Lake Erie near its lower extremity, is a very fine and deep stream for some miles from its mouth, and is believed to afford one of the best harbours on the lakes. Kingston, at the foot of Lake Ontario, and this harbour, within the mouth of the Grand River, are the two chief stations for the naval forces of the colony.

Canada is generally a level country; at least it does not possess any very lofty mountains: though on the banks of the St Lawrence and the other waters there are bold ranges of hills and banks. The country rises in a series of table-lands, the north-western portion being supposed to lie above 1200 feet above the sea-level. Between the Lakes Erie and Ontario, there is a sudden general elevation of one table-land above another, which produces the Fall of Niagara. Great part of the country is covered with the dense uniform forest which is known to be the characteristic of a large portion of North America. Along the St Lawrence and the borders of the lakes, where the settlements are abundant, the scenery attracts all visitors by its richness and variegated beauty. But the most valuable and densely-peopled and cultivated part of the settlement, is that irregular promontory stretching into the cluster

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of lakes, and coming within the general latitude of the United States.

The settler in this country, according to his tastes and capacities, has an ample variety of choice, from the gay, fashionable, bustling city, to the distant impregnable forest, uncleared, and almost untrodden. Quebec, the capital of Lower Canada, contains a population between 30,000 and 40,000, chiefly of French origin. Its vast fortifications, still kept up, make a conspicuous figure in the history of our dependencies. Its port is available for shipping of the largest tonnage. It has itself been a great shipbuilding port, and it has a large trade, as the centre of the commerce of Canada with Britain and the West India colonies. The town has breweries and distilleries, and many other manufactories—such as soap, candle, and tobacco. Though chiefly built of stone, there is so much wood-work in the town that it has been subject to terrible conflagrations. It is situated in the midst of a very rich and beautiful district, pretty thickly settled. The population of the county in 1848 was 65,805.

Montreal, formerly the second city of Lower Canada, has of late risen to higher importance than Quebec, as from its being close to Upper Canada, and more central to the United Provinces, it has become the site of the Legislative Chambers. Its population exceeds that of Quebec, being considerably above 40,000. The English and the French are more nearly balanced in number; and hence it is to be feared came the riots of 1849, in which the English party disgraced their origin by the wanton destruction of the Legislative Chamber and its library. As Quebec is the port for the external or maritime communication of the *Canadas*, Montreal is the centre of the communications with the United States—a source of still more extensive traffic and transactions, not the least important of which is the 'forwarding' business, by which emigrants, taking Canada in their route, are passed on to the States. In both these towns a feature which will be novel to an English or Scottish settler, and perhaps not expected in an emigration *land*, is the magnificent establishments for the worship and other religious purposes of the Roman Catholic church. The Catholic cathedral at Montreal is a stately, capacious, and magnificent building, which would do no discredit to any of the French or Belgian cities.

Toronto, the capital of Western or Upper Canada, is of a different character, a vast majority of its inhabitants being of British origin. Their numbers are now about 30,000. This handsome town is on the northern border of the inland sea, Lake Ontario; and of its great commerce, two-thirds are conducted with the United States across the water. It was the seat of the parliament and

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government offices of Upper Canada before the union of the provinces. It has risen with great rapidity during the past twenty-five years, not having two thousand inhabitants in 1826; and its success has a foundation in the intelligence, industry, and energy of its inhabitants, which mere political removals are not likely to injure. Toronto, besides many other public edifices, has a university, with several subsidiary educational institutions. It is in the centre of a richly-cultivated district, full of mansion-houses and valuable farms.

Kingston is the name of another considerable town on Lake Ontario, close to the vast cluster of islands at the efflux of the St Lawrence. It has a busy, bustling, rapidly-increasing population, which must now amount to about 10,000. For a short time after the union of the Canadas, the united parliament was held here. Here Mr Johnston, the author of the 'Notes on North America,' attended a show of stock and agricultural implements, got up under the auspices of a local society: it was not so extensive or so crowded as one which he previously attended at Syracuse, state of New York; but this was 'more numerously attended by well-dressed and well-behaved people, and rendered attractive by a greater quantity of excellent stock and implements than he had at all anticipated.'

It is unnecessary to give a minute account of all the towns of Canada. If it were a completely new place of settlement like New Zealand and some of the Australian colonies, it would belong to a work on emigration to afford a more minute description of these towns, since, in a perfectly new settlement, towns grow not by the natural increase of commerce and population, but by the artificial concentration of the emigrants. But the Canadas are, to a certain extent, old colonies, and their towns form themselves, like those of Britain, by trade, and the natural increase of population. Undoubtedly, however, it is a feature worthy of keeping in view, that these towns have very rapidly increased of late. They have done so, partly by an influx through emigration, but also by a concentration of business and industrial transactions, which gives promise of the country being adapted for future emigration.

Among the other towns are Hamilton, Guelph, and London. This last, to make the imitation and the future confusion more complete, is in the county of Middlesex, and on the border of a river called the Thames. It has only been about twenty-five years in existence, but has a population of some thousands. It is in the centre of the most available district of the province—namely, of that peninsular-shaped tract which, running farther south than any other part of British North America, is nearly surrounded by the lakes.

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In its social condition Canada has the unfortunate peculiarity that it possesses two distinct races—English in the Western, and French in the Eastern divisions. These races have never amalgamated. The French retain their own language, also their old French laws and usages, and, for the most part, profess the Roman Catholic religion. The recent attempt to harmonise local discords by a legislative union of the two provinces has not been so successful as was anticipated; and time and mutual concessions will alone produce the much-desired result.

TRANSIT.

Notice has already been taken of the vast system of water-communication which pervades the provinces of North America. In some respects, however, the means of water-transit are not naturally so good as they might seem to be. The terraced character of the country subjects the large rivers to rapids, and even to cataracts. The Falls of Niagara, for instance, completely block up the river-communication between the great lakes. The other great rivers, the St Lawrence and the Ottawa, have many formidable rapids. One of the great impediments to the prosperity of the provinces was the dangerous navigation of the St Lawrence. Between Montreal and the lakes it was only navigable by the finest and strongest steam-vessels; but even with these it has ever been a formidable passage, and inferior steamers and trading vessels had to take the circuitous route by the Ottawa and the Rideau Canal. Vast works have been lately carried through for the purpose of making the direct line by the St Lawrence passable, and among these there is one ship canal, twelve miles long, for passing the rapid called the Long Sault. The opening of these works must considerably diminish the traffic through the Rideau Canal—a long irregular work between Kingston, on Lake Ontario, and Bytown, on the Ottawa. Its chief use for some time must now be in connection with the timber trade. The country through which it passes is not by any means the most available for agricultural purposes, and large districts are swamped by the operations for connecting the canal with the chain of lakes.

It became, of course, of immense importance to connect Lake Erie and Lake Ontario by a navigable canal. On the British side of the Niagara there was the advantage of possessing a long neck of land with internal waters which might be turned to use, while on the American side there is no such advantage. The enterprising republicans have, nevertheless, projected a canal parallel to the river, and descending the bank of rock which

causes the cataract by a series of locks, which, on a plan, look like the steps of a stair. In the meantime the navigation has been secured to Britain by the Welland Canal. It was at first thought that the object might be accomplished by connecting the Welland River, which enters the Niagara above the rapids, with Lake Ontario, a distance of fifteen miles. But the geological structure was found unsuitable, and the works gave way. With true enterprising spirit, a cut was made to Lake Erie, which is the feeder, and connected directly with the Ontario. It has large stone locks, which will make it available for vessels 140 feet long. In the words of a colonial authority: 'These ship-canal have been constructed in the most substantial manner; their entire length is about sixty-six miles; and the navigation which they open from Quebec is 1600 miles, that being the distance to the port of Chicago, in the state of Illinois. Steamers adapted to the canal trade, and possessing comfortable accommodations for cabin and steerage passengers, ply from Quebec to all points on the upper lakes, so that goods and passengers may be conveyed from the ship's side at Quebec, without transshipment, to any of the ports on Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, or Michigan.'—(*Report — Committee of Executive Council of the Canadas, 5th February 1850.*)

Before these alterations were made, it was usual for travellers to Western Canada, to whom a difference in expense was little object, to proceed to New York, and thence by railway to Buffalo, near Niagara. Matters are now so far reversed, that emigrants for the great western land of the Union, and even for the more central districts approachable by railway, find it convenient to take the St Lawrence route. It is difficult to say how far this line of communication may be employed in conveying to the Atlantic the agricultural produce of the new north-western territories of the United States.

Where so much was to be gained by improving the means of water-communication, it might easily be supposed that other means of transit would meet with secondary attention. There are necessarily many roads giving access to the internal settlements, but a vast increase of the lines would make the country infinitely more valuable. There is a good road along the Canadian part of the south bank of the St Lawrence, and another on the north continued along the margin of the lakes. There are other considerable roads by the banks of the Ottawa, from Toronto to Lake Simcoe, where a railway is projected, and from the upper end of Lake Ontario, branching in various directions through the peninsular district.

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PRODUCTIONS.

If the proposing colonist is considering how he can have the luxuries of the garden around him, he will find that almost all the ordinary fruits and vegetables of this country flourish abundantly in Canada; and he will find the small farmers of the Eastern district sedulously cultivating them. As a specimen of the capabilities of the country for producing fruit, the following passage from Sir Richard Bonnycastle's first work on Canada, published in 1841, may suffice:—

'In my garden' [at Toronto, on Lake Ontario] 'I had the following varieties of fruit, from which the customary gifts of Pomona, in Upper Canada, in favourable situations, may be inferred:—Of apples, the golden pippin, not so good as in England, but healthier; the pomme-de-neige, a ruddy-streaked apple, with white flesh, and very sweet and pleasant, but which will not keep long, and hence its name; the snow-apple, keeping sound only until winter snows; the bourossou, a russet and highly-flavoured keeping apple; the pomme-gris, or gray apple, also excellent, with many other varieties of inferior kinds—such as codlings, little red-streaks, &c.

'The pears were of two kinds—one, the little early yellow, and the other a small hard one, but neither good.

'Of plums, there were the greengage and egg plum, the bullace, the common blue and the common yellow plum, but none of them possessing the taste of those in France or England, and more fit for preserves than for the table.

'Of grapes I had only the Isabella, and these were not productive, requiring in this climate great care and management.

'Of cherries, the Kentish and the Morello; the sour Kentish is, however, the common fruit of the country, and very little pains has been taken to improve the stock.

'Raspberries, red and white; gooseberries, large and small, rough and smooth-skinned; the red, the white, and the black currant were in profusion, and yielded abundantly.

'Of strawberries, there were several of the European varieties, but they have not the rich flavour of their originals: in fact, the wild Canadian strawberry, though smaller, is better, and makes a richer preserve.'

The settler, however, in a new country generally despises the mere luxuries of the garden, and considers the main staff of life and the exportable produce. The main indigenous production of the soil in Canada is timber. Some account of the position of the lumberer, or timber-cutter, will be found further on. There is a large produce of potash from the burning of the felled trees. At the same time there is a considerable production of sugar from the tapping of the maple-trees: from six to seven million of pounds are pro-

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duced annually. 'Some trees,' says Mr Johnston, in his *Notes on North America*, 'yield three or four pounds—a pound being the estimated yield of each *coulisse* or tap-hole—and some trees being large and strong enough to bear tapping in several places. Some years also are much more favourable to this crop than others, so that the estimate of a pound a tree is taken as a basis which, on the whole, may be relied on as fair for landlord and tenant. These trees are rented out to the sugar-makers at a rent of one-fifth of the produce, or one pound for every five trees.' The same gentleman states that in Upper Canada the sugar weather is more variable, and the crop less certain—probably from the vicinity of the lakes—than in Lower Canada. Besides being an article of produce which the settler may look for in the uncleared portion of his allotment, maple-sugar is a produce of the untrodden forest, where, like any other of the wild bounties of nature, it is sought by adventurers, who take with them their pots and buckets at the proper season. In the cleared and agricultural districts grain will be the staple production of the Canadas; and the clearer of waste lands may confidently, since the repeal of the corn-laws, look to this crowded empire as an unfailing market for his produce. Indian corn is, as in the northern parts of the United States, an abundant and therefore generally a satisfactory crop; but the main agricultural production of the land coming into cultivation will doubtless be wheat. The upper province is the most suitable for wheat, and, according to Mr Johnston, the best samples 'are grown on a belt of some twelve miles broad, which skirts the lake from Niagara round as far as the town of Cobourg, which is about a hundred miles west of Kingston.' From Mr Johnston's book, and other authorities, however, it is clear that though wheat be the most valuable crop under an enlightened system of farming, its immediate prospects are not good, from the exhausting system pursued, and the land receiving little or no artificial aid. He mentions Prince Edward's district, where the land has in some places been wheat-cropped for fifty years, without any other aid than a ton of gypsum per year to a whole farm. Under such a system Canada is not likely to be the immediate granary it is supposed to be, and, indeed, the lower province has already become an importing district: the staple commodity which supports the country, and enables it to purchase of its neighbours, being the lumber trade. It is known that the changes on the timber-duties are supposed to have an effect on this article of production. It was our policy to charge a high and almost prohibitive duty on the timber of foreign countries for the sake of our provinces. Now, though there is still an inequality, both sets of duties are low. How far this may affect the question of cropping it would perhaps be premature to decide. Hitherto,

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however, the nature of the Canadian land has not been to afford any valuable commodity other than timber until it has been cleared and worked, and the agricultural productions fall to be considered, to a considerable extent, under the subject of the bringing in of land (p. 27.) Cattle and sheep will spread as the country becomes cleared, and necessarily connect themselves with the farming rotations. Though not naturally a sheep country, yet the quantity of wool exported from the Canadas approaches two and a half millions of pounds.

Building-stone and clay abound in the provinces, but the profuse abundance of timber is a great inducement to its employment in all buildings and fences in the country. The mineral resources of the provinces are considerable—coal and iron occur in various places; and a joint-stock company was incorporated for working the coal even in Gaspé, the cold, distant peninsula which stretches out to the ocean between New Brunswick and the mouth of the Gulf of St Lawrence. There are iron-works at Marmora on the Trent, and in other districts. The abundance of wood for smelting gives all opportunity for taking advantage of the supply of this mineral; but very little is yet known of its probable extent—it is not one of the main productions of the colony. There are rich copper ores in various parts of the colony, and indications have been found of other minerals—such as galena or blacklead, and gold.

The indigenous animals of the colony will be noticed in connection with the clearing of land. Canada is not one of the great North American fishing colonies. Yet the company embodied to work the coal in Gaspé at the same time took powers for conducting fishing operations there.

TOPOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.

It will be observed, by a glance at a map, that the Eastern or French district lies in general farther north than the Western. It is thus subject to a longer and deeper winter; and as the coldness is looked upon as one of the general disadvantages of Canada as a settlement, it would require some counteracting advantages, which it does not possess, to compete with the newer districts beyond the Ottawa. It is at the same time the more mountainous part, the St Lawrence being bounded, on the north side especially, by steep rugged hills, affording openings for large streams to fall into the main river or its gulf. On neither side of the gulf are there settlements to any noticeable extent, and on the northern bank, the forest-clad mountains merge into the inhospitable

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pitiable deserts of Labrador. From the mouth of the river upwards to the Ottawa, the banks are more or less settled, but the inland regions are little known. The garden of Eastern Canada is the westernmost territory on the south of the St Lawrence, and west of the Chaudière, meeting the United States at the lately-established boundary. The scenery is varied; being partly mountainous, partly richly-cultivated plain and valley. The French settlers have at all events given a rich, lifelike, old-settled appearance to their districts, from the garden-like cultivation, the fences, the villages, and the churches. Indolent as they are, they give a country a more highly-cultivated air than British settlers, since, instead of covering a large space, and taking the greatest amount of produce with the least outlay of labour and capital—the most economic way of working a new country—they are content, with the simplest hand-labour, to extract the utmost from their small holdings. Their long, lean swine, and their use of the old starvation system generally for their live-stock, attract the unsparing ridicule of our tourists, especially those who are adepts in agriculture. The west is the popular field of British settlement; but Sir Richard Bonnycastle thinks that among the best speculations for a man not ambitious of making a vast clearing, would be the purchase of holdings, with all their feudal inconveniences, from the *habitans*, at the rate at which they are generally obtainable.

The feudal tenure of land, which applies to a large portion of Eastern Canada, is a matter of importance to the intending emigrant, as it doubtless is to the Canadians themselves. It is said that this system is in force over about eleven millions of acres of land—part of it of course unproductive. This system is a very remarkable relic of the old feudal law of France. It follows the 'Custom of Paris'—a collection of laws completely obsolete in the capital whose name they bear. The French land system is now as opposite to the feudal as it can be made, estates having been brought as near as possible into the position of goods and chattels. Such has been the effect of the Revolution in the parent country; while, under a government like ours, still partly feudal, it has been found impracticable to get the feudal habits of the colonists reasonably modified. By this system a tract of land was granted by the crown to a seigneur, or lord of a manor, who might distribute it to tenants or vassals. These lordships or seigneuries were more or less in extent. Of old the seigneur was a feudal judge within his lands; but this power being inconsistent with our notions of the supremacy of the crown, has been for some time obsolete. There were thus two kinds of estate—that of the seigneur or overlord, who held directly of the crown, and that of the rotourier or tenant,

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holding of the seigneur. Each party paid certain fees and casualties, as they are called, to his superior—the crown in the one case, the seigneur in the other. Thus a quint or fifth became payable to the sovereign on a seigneur parting with his estate, and relief, equivalent to a revenue for one year, was payable on its changing hands by the succession of a collateral relation. The feudal dues from these various estates are numerous and peculiar, and have a great influence on the character and value of the property. Thus it is remarked, on sailing along the St Lawrence and other rivers, that the farms are narrow stripes passing lengthways from the bank of the river; and the peculiarity is explained by a feudal tax being laid on the frontage, according to the old measurement, called the *arpent*. As the seigneurial lands pay certain casualties or penalties on changing hands, so do those of the vassals, according to a somewhat minute and complex arrangement. In general, too, the commerce in land is hampered by a right of pre-emption on the part of the seigneur. There are many little casualties payable in the form of farm produce—pigs, fowls, measures of grain, &c. It is worthy of remark, that the phraseology applicable to such feudal taxes is still kept up in Britain; and especially in Scotland; but the economising and utilitarian spirit of the country has led to their being almost invariably commuted into fixed money payments, while the *habitans* of Canada like to retain them in their pristine inconvenience. There were seigneurial rights connected with the cutting of timber and the produce of fisheries, while the grain required to be ground at the seigneur's mill, paying to him a certain share as his feudal tax.

On the other hand, the seigneur was under certain obligations to his vassal, or rather to the land which his vassal cultivated. These obligations referred to the making of roads, and to the vassal's privilege to obtain, on the fixed conditions, so much waste or forest land. It has been maintained by some writers of this country, that if left in its native purity the system is a good one; that it establishes mutual rights and obligations tending to make a social system in each estate, and to concentrate population and agriculture in each seignury; and that it is British interference alone that has exposed its defects. It may be admitted that it is a suitable arrangement for the French, since they will not part with it. An act was passed in 1825, giving facilities, as it were, for the system being worked off by the mutual agreement of parties. Much fault has, however, been found with this measure, since it is stated that the *habitans* in general would not take advantage of its arrangements to alter their system of tenure, and that it only practically relaxed the counter-obligations on the seigneurs.

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Near Quebec the land which has been occupied by these French settlers sells high. Mr Johnston mentions a farmer in that neighbourhood who paid £75 currency per acre. But there is uncleared land at no great distance as cheap as in other districts. 'Formed,' says Mr Johnston in his *Notes on North America*, 'from softish, somewhat calcareous slates, which in many places are near the surface, and crumble readily, the soil is inclined to be heavy, and rests often on an impervious bottom. Drainage, therefore, generally, and the use of lime in many places, are indicated as means of improvement. The latter, if I may judge by the frequent limekilns I passed on my way to Montmorency, is tried to some extent by the farmers around Quebec.' Near the Kamouraska Bays there is said to be much rich flat land easily procurable, but sharing in the unpopularity which with British settlers infects the eastern province generally. Mr Johnston, as usual, urges draining and improving. 'Though marshy,' he says, 'I was informed that this flat is exceedingly healthy—as most places in Lower Canada and New Brunswick are said to be—even where in Great Britain fever and ague would inevitably prevail. But nevertheless, for agricultural reasons, it is a fit locality for the introduction of a general thorough drainage. The narrow nine-foot ridges so common in Canada, the open furrows between them, and the large main drains or ditches around the fields, are all insufficient to remove the water which falls and accumulates in the land. To keep the two sets of open ditches in order must here, as elsewhere, annually cost much more than the interest of the sums which the construction of covered drains would require.'

Mr Johnston has expressed a high opinion of the capabilities of the land near Montreal. The farm-land near the river he states to produce per acre from twenty to thirty-five bushels of wheat, and from forty to sixty of oats—moderate amounts in this country, but considerably above the ordinary capacity of emigration fields. He values the land when it is good, well in heart, and with sufficient buildings on it, at £16 sterling per acre. He particularises in this garden of Canada the farm of Mr Penner, on which there are from forty to fifty acres in hops, which thrive, producing from 800 to 1000 pounds weight per acre. 'Here,' says Mr Johnston, 'as in our own hop-grounds, and in those of Flanders, they require high manuring; and thus, as a general article of culture, they are beyond the skill of the manure-neglecting French Canadians, and the equally careless British and Irish emigrant settlers. This rich hop-ground is worth £40 an acre.'

Mr Johnston found in this neighbourhood some farmers of the

old Scotch school, and he quotes their precept thus: 'Lay the land dry, then clean and manure—make straight furrows—clean out your ditches—take off the stones, and plough *deepish*.' 'With these good mechanical principles,' he says, 'industriously carried out, they have greatly surpassed the French Canadian farmers; and with the possession of good Ayrshire stock, and the growth of a few turnips, and of mangold-wurzel, which does well even with the early winters of Lower Canada, they have raised good crops, extended the arable land of their farms, and kept up its condition.' Finding the land, which near the river especially is rich, loamy, and easily worked, drained by open ditches and cross furrows, he recommends tile-draining. This opens the great question—how far it is more economical in such a country to lay out additional labour and capital on the land in use, or to apply the labour and capital to virgin soil? It is impossible to make an absolute rule. Each tract of country must be considered by itself, and by the views and objects of its settlers. If the agriculturist will draw more produce for his capital and labour in new fields than by working up his old, it will not be easy to get him to abandon the more profitable course, and take to the less profitable. At the same time it is beyond doubt that he may, by exhausting a large tract of country with scourging crops, find that he has outwitted himself by making haste to be rich. His judgment and knowledge must decide the matter on a view of all circumstances. Of tile-draining, as applicable to these lands, Mr Johnston says: 'Although here, as in the state of New York, the cost may appear large when compared with the total value of the land, and the increase of price which, after tile-draining, would be obtained for it in the market, yet, if from the cost be deducted the annual outlay which must be incurred to keep the ditches and cross furrows open, the actual expense of the permanent tile-drainage will rapidly disappear. When a man settles on such land, therefore, as requires the maintaining of open ditches—with the view of retaining it say only ten or twelve years—he will, in most cases, find his pecuniary profit greater at the end of the term, although the price he then sells his land for should really be no greater. Intimately connected with this is the question: whether capitalists farming, by a large expenditure on hired labour, or what may be called domestic farming—the settler and his family doing the whole, or nearly the whole—will be most productive? Mr Johnston seems to point at a medium. He says: 'It is conceded that a man with 100 acres in cultivation, doing one-half the work by the hands of his own family, and employing hired labour to do the rest, may make both ends meet; but if a larger farm is to be worked by the same home force, with a larger

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number of hired labourers, it is a question whether it can be done in average years so as to pay. The doubt arises not merely from the high price, but from the alleged, and I believe real, inferior quality of the agricultural labour, chiefly Irish, which a farmer is able to procure.

One of the reasons why the Eastern Province is unpopular as an emigration field may be, that the settler passing through it sees it have the appearance of being thickly settled. The *habitans* are very neighbourly, and, at a sacrifice to the convenience of their farm operations, live near the high road, which is thus lined with houses running in long strings, separated from each other by a field or two. It is the way in France, except that there the peasantry live in clumps called villages—in Canada they live in streaks along the road. Thus the Scottish and even the English emigrant thinks the district is not for him, as it seems more thickly peopled than even the country he has left. But in reality only a trifling portion of Lower Canada is brought into cultivation. At the back of the farms which line the highway, the primeval forest often comes close down. Taking together the counties of Bellechasse, L'Islet, Kamouraska, and Rimouski, of 11,593 square miles, but 4094 have been surveyed, so that nearer two-thirds than a half of the land has not gone through the first step for settlement—in fact, is not known except perhaps to the lumberer, and not explored. Even of what is surveyed, it is only a portion that is even granted; and Mr Johnston, a good authority, states, that of land granted, above two-thirds is still uncleared.

Leaving Easter Canada, and taking the districts of the western province, the chief emigration field, successively, it will be seen that the angle of junction of the Ottawa with the St Lawrence is occupied by the Eastern district, and that of the Ottawa, Dalhousie, Bathurst, and Johnstown. The general character of the land bordering on the Ottawa does not make it the most suitable for the farming settler, as it is considered cold and wet, and the timber trade is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. There is in Ottawa, at Hawkesbury, a timber-sawing establishment, giving employment to above 200 hands. Costly works have been carried on, by slides and dams, to facilitate the transit through the Ottawa River; but it is still tedious and imperfect. The Eastern District is one of the old settled countries, having a population exceeding 30,000, and has but a comparatively small quantity of crown-land for disposal. The same may be said as to the good and available land of Johnstown district, which contains a population exceeding 40,000. The Rideau Canal runs through the north-west portion; but much of the land which would other-

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wise be valuable from its vicinity to the canal or the lakes, is said to be cold and stony. Dalhousie and Bathurst—the latter especially—are reported to contain large tracts of forest land. The district town of Perth, in Bathurst, was founded in the year 1816, with the river Tay connecting it, by means of expensive works, with the Rideau Canal. In Dalhousie, near the Chaudière Falls of the Ottawa, is the still more important and flourishing town of Bytown, with a great lumber trade, and about 7000 inhabitants. The land on which the lower town is built was bought a few years ago for £80, and was lately computed as worth many thousand pounds. The Midland District, which is the next towards the west, contains the important town of Kingston. Much of the known land in this district is said to be inferior; but along with the next district, Victoria, it runs into distant northern tracts, far from water-carriage, where, if the land has been surveyed at all, it has been so very recently. A considerable stretch of the surveyed land, of good quality, may, it is believed, be obtained in Victoria at the usual government price. Marble and excellent building stone occur in these districts; and in Victoria there is iron and lithographic stone. The Newcastle District has a large frontage to Lake Ontario; while its eastern dividing-line is washed by Rice Lake and the Trent. It is of varied character, part of it having been settled for a considerable time, and producing heavy grain crops. Part of the land is of the rolling prairie character, and a portion consists of 'oak plains.' The latter were believed to be comparatively worthless and unproductive; but under a skillful system of clearing and culture, they have been found rich and productive, and have brought a high price even when uncleared. Behind this is the Colborne District, stretching into the unsurveyed country, but having by a series of lakes a ready communication with the Trent and Lake Ontario. It is a great lumber district, and at the same time has a large supply of waste crown-lands for disposal. Immediately westward is the vast district of Simcoe, touching Georgian Bay on Lake Huron. Its population at the census of 1842 was but 12,592, but it must since then have greatly increased. Great tracts of government land stand for sale; the quality is believed to be very productive, but the want of roads and other means of communication is a great drag on the progress of improvement. Along with the next district, Wellington, it will be the means of communication, through Lake Huron, with the great north-western provinces. Wellington, enjoying the advantage of being watered by the Grand River, contains some valuable old settlements, and is traversed by good roads. It is partly a rolling country, but contains at least a sufficiency of timber—hardwood, beech, oak, elm, and pine. Guelph, the

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district town, is described as flourishing, healthy, and placed in the middle of a richly-cultivated country. The population of the district is not large, but several of the settlers are understood to be wealthy. Whether for the purchase of waste land, of which there must still be a considerable quantity, or of improved clearings, this would appear to be one of the most promising districts. To the west and south, and approaching nearer to the Niagara centre, are the districts of Huron, Brock, and Gore. If there be any crown-lands still for sale in these districts, they will be in Huron, where the Canada Company have also large stretches at their disposal. The neighbouring districts of Talbot and Niagara are comparatively old settlements, with no government land for disposal. The remaining districts between the Huron and Erie are the London and Western. The former contains some of the most flourishing of the modern settlements. The latter has many advantages in valuable land, and means of communication by water, and will be one of the most available districts for new settlers.

PURCHASE AND IMPROVEMENT OF LAND.

The parliament of Canada, almost immediately after the union in 1841, made arrangements for the disposal of public lands. It prohibited free grants, valuing those which had been issued but not made available, at 4s. currency per acre. The right to these old grants is represented by scrip-certificates; and it would appear that they may be sold, as they are referred to as land-scrip in the note of the terms for disposal of land quoted below. The act provided that the price of the public lands should be from time to time fixed by the governor in council, who was empowered to make arrangements for granting lands as compensation for the making of roads. In paying the price of the land to the district agent, it was provided that the purchaser shall receive letters-patent as his title without farther fee. There is thus no arbitrary price fixed by the home government for the disposal of the waste lands, as in the case of the Australian colonies. The price will vary from time to time, according to circumstances. It does not appear, however, that any alteration has been made since the year 1841; and the terms then adopted are set forth as follows, with instructions for the guidance of purchasers, by the Emigration Commissioners in their circular for 1851:—

‘By a provincial act of 1841, crown-lands are to be sold at a price to be from time to time fixed by the governor in council. The prices fixed for the present are as follows:—

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In Canada East (Lower Canada), for lands situated south of River St Lawrence, down to River Chaudière and Kennebec Road, and including the township of Newton, county of Vaudreuil, - 4s. per acre. County of Ottawa—

Lands in townships previously advertised, - - 4s. ...

Lands in townships to be hereafter advertised, - 3s. ...

East of River Chaudière and Kennebec Road, and including the counties of Bonaventure and Gaspé, - 2s. ...

North of River St Lawrence, from westerly limit of county of Two Mountains, down to easterly limit of county of Saguenay, - - - 2s. ...

‘One-fourth of the purchase-money will be payable in five years from the date of purchase. The remaining three-fourths in three equal instalments, at intervals of two years between each, all with interest.

‘No person will be allowed to purchase on those terms more than 20 acres.

The purchaser must clear, on taking possession, one-half the width of the road on the whole front of his land; and within four years from the date of purchase, one-tenth part of the lot, and must reside thereon.

‘No patent will be issued to the purchaser until it is satisfactorily proved that the above-mentioned settlement duties have been duly performed, nor until the whole of the purchase-money and interest is paid up. In the meantime no timber must be cut without a licence, except for clearing the land, or for farm purposes.

‘Applications to purchase land are to be made to the respective local agents in the colony.

‘*For Canada West (Upper Canada), 8s. currency (about 6s. 7d. sterling) per acre.*

‘These prices do not apply to lands resumed by government for non-performance of the conditions of settlement on which they were granted, under a former system, now abolished, nor to lands called Indian Reserves, and Clergy Reserves; which three classes are, as well as town and village lots, subject to special valuation.

‘The size of the lots of country lands is usually 200 acres; but they are sold as frequently by half as whole lots.

‘The following are the conditions of sale at present in force, as regards land in Canada West:—

‘1. The lots are to be taken at the contents in acres marked in the public documents, without guarantee as to the actual quantity contained in them.

‘2. No payment of purchase-money will be received by instalments; but the whole purchase-money, either in money or land-scrip, must be paid at the time of sale.

‘3. On the payment of the purchase-money, the purchaser will receive a receipt, which will entitle him to enter on the land which he has purchased, and arrangements will be made for issuing to him the patent without delay.

‘The receipt thus given not only authorises the purchaser to take

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immediate possession, but enables him, under the provisions of the Land Act, to maintain legal proceedings against any wrongful possessor or trespasser, as effectually as if the patent deed had issued on the day the receipt is dated.

'Government land-agents are appointed in the several municipal districts, with full power to sell to the first applicant any of the advertised lands which the return, open to public inspection, may shew to be vacant within their districts.'

One of the means of acquiring waste land in Canada is by buying from the Canada Land Company or the North American Land Company. The former body, which has conducted large operations, was established by charter in 1826. The company purchased about two and a half millions of acres of land from the government (2,484,413), all in Upper Canada, a million being on the borders of Lake Huron, for the sum of £348,680. The chairman of the company, on examination before the House of Commons' Committee of 1841 on Highland Destitution, when desired to state the object of the company, explained simply that it was 'the resale of that land, and the outlay of capital to improve it, so as to obtain a profit on the sale of the land.' The company sells its land according to what it deems the market value; and the chairman stated the range of its prices to be so wide as between 5s. and 35s. an acre. Their lands are partly in scattered lots of about 200 acres each, and in blocks. The largest of these is the Huron block of 1,000,000 acres, now containing a population of 26,000. The other blocks are from 3000 to 4000 acres in the Western District. In their latest documents the company advertise their lands at the following prices, stated in currency. They state them with reference to the new division into counties, but it is more convenient here to take them by the old topographical division, which is laid down in the ordinary maps. The amounts are stated in currency (see above, p. 4) per acre: Huron Tract, from 12s. 6d. to 20s.; Western District, from 8s. 9d. to 20s.; London, Brock, and Talbot Districts, from 20s. to 30s.; Gore District, from 11s. 3d. to 20s.; Wellington, from 15s. to 25s.; Home and Simcoe Districts, 8s. 9d., and upwards; Newcastle, Colborne, Midland, and Victoria Districts, from 8s. 9d. to 15s.; Johnstown District, from 2s. to 15s.; Bathurst, Eastern, Ottawa, and Dalhousie Districts, from 2s. to 12s. 6d.

The company disposes of land by lease for nine years, at a percentage on its value. When the price is 2s. an acre, 100 acres may be thus hired at 10s.; when the price is 3s. 6d. an acre, the rent of 100 acres is 12s.; when it is 5s. an acre, 18s.; and so on in an ascending scale. When the price of the land is 17s. 6d. an acre, the rent of 100 acres is £4, 2s. 6d.

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The Canada Company obtained returns in 1840 regarding the progress of the settlers, stating what they were understood to be worth when they entered on their holdings, and what they had since acquired. The object was said to be to test the capacity of the settlers to pay the instalments that would be required of them, and the returns were laid before parliament in the Report of the Committee on Highland Destitution in 1841. They go over the period from the commencement of the company's operations to 1840, about 22 years. One table referred to 724 settlers in 38 townships. Of these, 337 had originally no property, and were computed to be worth £116,228, 9s. 6d., or, on an average, £334, 17s. 9d. a head. Another class, consisting of 89 settlers—the term 'settler' applies either to a solitary individual or the head of a settling family—originally possessing each less than £20, had collectively £38,213, 10s. 6d.—an average per head of £429, 7s. 3d. A third class, consisting of 298 persons, when they arrived had on an average each £111, 19s. 10d., and were collectively in possession of £169,304, 1s. 9d.—being an average of £568, 2s. 8d. per head. The company have lately issued a no less instructive statement—that between the beginning of 1844 and 31st December 1850, they have been the channel of remitting from emigrant settlers £77,661 to their friends in Britain, chiefly for the purpose of enabling them to emigrate.

Besides the Canada and British American Company, another body, called The North American Colonial Association of Ireland, was formed a few years ago for the acquisition and disposal of lands. It directed its attention chiefly to the eastern province. This body purchased the large seigneurial estate of Beauharnois, containing about eight square leagues. In a dispatch from Lord Sydenham to the Colonial Secretary in 1841, he says: 'I understand that their efforts will be directed to the improvement of this property by the direct expenditure of capital there, or by advances to the local authorities for the construction of roads and communications, and to affording assistance to the provisional government in providing means by which some of the great improvements in contemplation may be effected. Likewise, that it is not their intention to speculate in wild lands.'

According to the general accounts given by Mr Smith in his 'Canadian Gazetteer,' a work which the emigrant will find signally useful, improved lands may be had in the Victoria District at from £4 to £7 an acre; in Newcastle District, from £2, 10s. to £5—some farms being as high as £10; in the Colborne District the prices will vary from £2 to £6, according to distance from the towns, while wild land may be had as low as from 4s. to 5s. in the less approachable parts; in the Gore District, cleared land will

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range as high as from £5 to £10; in the Wellington District, the amount will be from £3 to £8; in Niagara, from £2 to £8; while in the Brock District the range will rise from £4 to £10; in London, from £4 to £8.

The quantity of land surveyed in Western Canada is estimated at 18,153,219 acres. Of this quantity, it is calculated that a million and a half remain on hand. About ten and a half millions have been miscellaneously disposed of. The clergy reserves form 2,407,687; the reserves for educational purposes exceed half a million; the Indian reserves are 808,540; and the Canada Company hold, as we have seen, about two millions and a half. The unsurveyed lands are estimated at thirteen millions and a half. The late movements relative to the clergy reserves will of course tend to bring a new breadth of available land into the market.

CHOICE OF AN ALLOTMENT, AND SUBSEQUENT PROCEEDINGS.

The first steps to be taken by the intending purchaser of land on his arrival are of the simplest kind. He calls on the government agent and makes his inquiries as to the allotments surveyed and for sale, or seeks general information. This will be a proper step, whether he intend to clear for himself or buy a farm. According as his intentions may turn to the Western or Eastern province, to the bush or cleared land, he will make inquiry of the agents of the three land companies mentioned above. The advice generally given by old colonists to those following in their footsteps, is not to be in a hurry to buy land; but to lie by, gain experience, and see how matters stand. It is almost needless to remark, that if it be possible, the settler should see the land he proposes to purchase, and examine it deliberately with a view to its eligibility. Any man will know how a lot stands as to means of communication, but it requires a practised eye to understand the productiveness of the soil; and if it be possible, the uninitiated emigrant will obtain the assistance of a well-informed friend. Should he trust to his own resources—if his land contains beaver meadow, or dry alluvium from water subsidence, he may conclude that it is valuable. In general, however, he will have to judge of the capability of the soil by the character, size, and healthiness of the timber. A settler on the Huron Tract, in a pamphlet called 'The Life of a Backwoodsman,' says:

'The forest consists of a variety of trees—such as maple, beech, elm, basswood, ironwood, cherry, hickory, white ash, and butter-

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nut, which grow on dry land; and when seen to be tall, and branching only near the top, denote the quality of the land to be good. If low in size, and scraggy, the soil is clayey and cold, and inclined to be wettish; and in this situation will be found the birch. It is a tree which grows healthy and strong (often found from two to three feet in diameter) in land inclined to be wet at the spot where it grows. It is sometimes a mark to discover a spring of water. The birch will almost always be found near a spring. The trees which grow on wet and swampy lands are the oak, pine, hemlock, tamarack, black ash, and cedar; but the pine and hemlock are found also on dry soil. Consider thousands and tens of thousands of acres covered with trees of the above kinds. Maple, beech, elm, and basswood, are the kinds which grow most numerous, and on good land are sure to be found growing tall, and from one foot to three and four in diameter. There will be found in dry sandy plains and hills the oak and pine. When the oak grows on soil not sandy, it is apt to be clayey ground. In order to direct an emigrant to choose a lot of land, the following marks may be noted:—First, get, if possible, a lot with a small running stream (called a creek) on it, or a spring of water. Every lot has not a creek or spring on it; but water can be got by digging; and the well, when dug, ought to be lined or walled up with stones. I have known wells built up square with logs; but this may be done *above* where the water rises to; from the surface of the water and *under*, stone should be used. Second, observe that tall and strong timber, free of rotten branches or an unhealthy look, grows on good land—I mean elm, maple, beech, basswood, and cherry, and the other timber previously mentioned as growing on dry land. Throughout the bush, on both good and bad land, will be found the lifeless trunk standing ready to fall, “where it must lie.” A lot of land should not be rejected if a corner of it, even fifteen acres, is covered with black ash, pine, or cedar. For fencing the cleared fields, black ash and cedar are invaluable. For boards (lumber, as commonly termed) and shingles the pine is more valuable. Where the land is undulating—that is, rising and falling—it is likely to be good. Where the butternut and cherry are, the land is rich; but maple and basswood, with the elm, denote the same: if much beech, the land is lighter, but a warmer soil. The more “knolly” the land is (the knolls or small hills being caused by the “turn up” of the trees in falling) the better the soil. Where these are not much seen, the soil is apt to be clayey. The emigrant, however, will find a superior surface mould at which to try his hand and his plough.

Whoever glances at a map of Canada will see that, unlike many emigration fields, the uncleared forest is not far distant from the settled, cleared, and inhabited districts. The St Lawrence and the lakes may be considered as a street passing through the strip of country. Near the edge of the water are the settled districts—the forest is behind: not that the settler is limited in his choice

to the immediate neighbourhood. He may proceed up by the Rideau, and settle by its side, or on the banks of the Ottawa; or he may pass from Toronto to Lake Simcoe or Georgian Bay, or beyond the London Settlement to the Huron Tract. He is not, however, driven to unapproachable places; and need not, like the Australian squatter, go hundreds of miles away from neighbours. Still, while he has communication by roads, or the great natural highways with the centres of colonial civilisation, the bushman is almost the more lonely of the two. He has more access to the means of procuring the necessaries or luxuries of life, but not of having society; for in the midst of the lonely forest it is of little more consequence to him that there are fellow-mortals a few miles distant, with the pathless wilderness of trees between, than if they were so many hundreds of miles off. At the same time, the cheerfulness of a wide prospect around, and the presence of herds or flocks—a sort of companionship in themselves to the Australian squatter—are wanting.

From these and some other considerations, the proposing settler who takes out a moderate sum to Canada should weigh well the question whether he shall buy a clearing in a pleasant neighbourhood, or proceed and clear in the bush. He must consider whether he can stand the extremes of heat and cold, damp and exposure of all kinds, and almost ceaseless labour. He must also consider whether he can resist, in such circumstances of loneliness and fatigue, temptations to intemperance. The distance of the squatting districts in Australia from towns and distilleries renders it extremely difficult to procure ardent spirits there. But it is otherwise in the backwoods of Canada, where drunkenness is the lonely settler's curse and ruin. Many a man who, in the cheerfulness, and with the restraints of social life, never felt himself liable to such a fate, has become a victim in the bush.

In creeks and inlets of the lakes, and by the sides of the rivers and brooks, alluvial patches are to be found, which have their temptation from the absence of wood. The beaver-dam is sometimes, too, taken advantage of in the manner which will be mentioned in connection with New Brunswick. Where the alluvium is natural, it will be for the settler to consider the chances of ague, and the facilities for effective drainage—as in a timbered country there is seldom much free alluvial soil that is not essentially marshy. Nor must the settler calculate on being free of such sanitary risks, even where he has to clear the forest; and if he should choose to brave or risk the consequences in his own person, he will do well to have the prospect of his clearing being rendered dry and salubrious before he subjects his less hardy family, if he have one, to these risks.

Again, before he fix on clearing for himself, the settler must consider his capacity and prowess. He may be clever, muscular, and a good worker, but it does not follow that he is accomplished in felling and logging timber, and grubbing roots. We are not addressing ourselves to the capitalist who wishes to open a large district by employing lumberers, and who of course does nothing but calculate outlay and returns, and overlook the operations. The man, however, who goes to the woods with a small patrimony, which he desires to improve, must, with his own hand, lay the axe to the root of the tree. It will be almost good economy for the speedy return, in the first crop of grain, to employ an assistant; but it will be bad economy for the settler not to be able to give his own labour. He should try practically what the task of clearing is; and if he is not fit for it, invest his capital, however small, in a patch made fit for the plough. To him who is resolved on the bush, Sir Richard Bonnycastle, a gentleman of long Canadian experience, says: 'First lay your land in as fine a part of the province as possible, then build your log-hut, and a good barn and stable, with pig and sheep-pens. Then commence with a hired hand, whom you must not expect to treat you *en seigneur*, and who will either go shares with you in the crops, or require £30 currency a year, with his board and lodging. Begin hewing and hacking till you have cleared two or three acres for wheat, oats, and grass, with a plot for potatoes and Indian corn.

'When you have cut down the giant trees, then comes the logging. Reader, did you ever log? It is precious work! Fancy yourself in a smockfrock, the best of all working-dresses. Having cut the huge trees into lengths of a few feet, rolling these lengths up into a pile, and ranging the branches and brushwood for convenient combustion; then waiting for a favourable wind, setting fire to all your heaps, and burying yourself in grime and smoke; then rolling up these half-consumed enormous logs, till, after painful toil, you get them to burn to potash. . . . Cutting down the forest is hard labour enough, until practice makes you perfect; chopping is hard work also; but logging—nobody likes logging.' —(*Canada and the Canadians in 1846*, p. 73.) It brings the clearer, however, his first increase. The potash-lea from the burning is a regular export from the forest districts, and he can exchange it for commodities down the country. He can thus supply himself with flour until he has it from his own grain, and with barrels of pork. The whisky of Canada, if he has been accustomed to taste temperately at good tables old malt spirits at home, will taste at first detestably; but unfortunately too many in his position become speedily reconciled to it: he will do well to give all play to his first disgust. Maple-sugar, which is compared

to candied horehound, he can procure by tapping. For more luxurious appliances in this early stage, Sir Richard Bonnycastle says: 'If you have a gun, which you must have in the bush, and a dog, which you may have just to keep you company and to talk to, you may now and then kill a Canada pheasant, yeleft partridge, or a wild-duck, or mayhap a deer; but do not think of bringing a hound or hounds; for you can kill a deer just as well without them, and I never remember to have heard of a young settler with hounds coming to much good.' The Emigration Commissioners, in their circular for 1851, estimate the cost of clearing waste lands at £3 per acre. The shanty or log-hut has cost little more than the price of the shingle for its roofing—some 6s. or 7s.—and has been built by the clearer himself with the aid of his hired assistant or his neighbours.

When the ground is cleared, the stumps stick up like so many butchers' blocks. Uninstructed settlers naturally think of blasting and burning them, but the former is ineffective, and the latter only tends to preserve them from decay by charring. It is said that hardwood stumps decay in five or six years, but that thirty elapse ere the pine is mingled with the earth. A machine has been invented, to which steam-power may be applied, for the extraction of stumps, like gigantic teeth; and there is no doubt that the adaptation of machinery to all clearing purposes will in time revolutionise the system of forest clearings.

Meanwhile the fresh hand, ploughing as he best can among stumps and stones, has soon the satisfaction of seeing the first sproutings of Indian corn or buckwheat on his own land, and of grubbing out a few potatoes. He gets his grain ground for a proportion of the meal, and he can now keep live-stock—fowls, a pig, then a few sheep and cattle, while a garden begins gradually to smile round the rough log-hut, which has been perhaps raised by the settler's own hands, with the assistance of his neighbours. Ere some years are past, if he be sober, steady, and industrious, he is owner of a hundred or two acres, a great proportion of them productive, and thinks of fences and a larger house.

In the purchase of cleared and long-tilled land, the emigrant, if he be not a practical agriculturist, is as apt to be deceived, perhaps, as in that of waste land; and even if he be a practical man, he must be prepared for certain defects peculiar to the district, and characteristic. From what he hears of American agriculture, the purchaser will be warned not to invest in exhausted, worthless land. But there are some peculiar defects which the slovenly husbandry of the country has introduced—as, for instance, the spreading over the soil of a pestilent weed called the stone-weed, pigeon-weed, wheat-thief, red-root, and by various other names.

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It is said not to be indigenous, but to have been brought from Europe. If it once gets root, it grows, spreads, and flourishes with each crop of wheat, lying dormant during the spring ploughing, and becoming more and more luxuriant the more pains are taken in the culture of the grain. Mr Johnston says: 'The peculiarity of this weed consists in the hard covering with which its seed or nut is covered; in the time at which it comes up and ripens its seed; and in the superficial way in which its roots spread.' The hardness of its covering is such, that 'neither the gizzard of a fowl nor the stomach of an ox can destroy it,' and that it will lie for years in the ground without perishing, till the opportunity of germinating occurs. 'It grows up very little in spring, but it shoots up and ripens in autumn, and its roots spread through the surface soil only, and exhaust the food by which the young wheat ought to be nourished.' This weed is a punishment not only to the careless farmer but to his more industrious neighbour, if not to the farmer in our own country, since where it greatly abounds, its seed is used in the adulteration of lintseed cake.

SUITABLENESS FOR EMIGRATION.

There is no doubt that the natural resources of Canada for the employment of labour are very large; for all practical purposes, limitless: the great difficulty is in their effective development. The immigration in 1841 amounted to 28,086. In the ensuing year, which was one of great home depression, it had much increased, amounting to 44,374. It was observed that the excess consisted in a great measure of that hopeful species of migration when people are induced to go out at the instance of, and with assistance from, their relations; and the chief emigration agent reported that 'there is reason to believe that few of the industriously-disposed remained at the close of the year without employment.' The numbers in the two ensuing years were 21,727 and 20,142 respectively. In 1845 the number was 25,375; and it is stated in the emigration agents' reports, that several of them were possessed of moderate capital, and proceeded at once to purchase partially-improved properties, or enter into trade. Some were small farmers, with sufficient means to establish themselves advantageously on wild lands; 'but the great bulk were agricultural labourers, many of whom had nothing even for their immediate support.' Yet, along with the immigrants of the ensuing year, 1846, they seem to have all found some satisfactory outlet, many of them proceeding to the United States.

The year 1847 was totally exceptional. The number of exiles

who reached Quebec in that year was 89,440. The reports, both by the emigration agents and the colonial authorities for that year, afford a miserable picture of the state in which the Irish were shovelled forth. It will have to be mentioned in connection with the other British American colonies, as well as in its connection with the United States. Confusion and alarm were excited not only by the appearance and for the fate of the miserable objects discharged from the emigrant vessels, but for their effect on the health and the supply of food at the places where they landed, or which they passed in their route. Many died on board the vessels; others, helplessly and hopelessly sick, had to be removed to lazaret-houses. A large number of these people had been removed with the distinct intention that a burden should be removed from the Irish parish or estate, and that it might fall where it alighted. Men in extreme old age, permanent imbeciles, widows with swarms of children—all were huddled off together, and strewn as it were on the Canadian shore. It was with reference to the burdens thus laid on the province that the measure for a tax on emigrants, mentioned below, was passed.

On the whole, it does not appear that we have any right to cast off our social degradation on another shore. Strangers will not receive it: our own colonies ought not to be subject to it. The object of a great part of the emigration of that year was to remove certain burdens from landlords and ratepayers in Ireland, and lay them on some 'person or persons unknown' across the Atlantic. The Canadians found, in 1847, that in many instances widows, with helpless infant families, were sent over to them by Irish landlords and relief committees. 'They are generally,' says the report of the emigrant agent for Upper Canada, 'dirty in their habits, and unreasonable in their expectations as to wages. They appear to possess but little ambition or desire to adapt themselves to the new state of things with which they are surrounded. The few who possess any money invariably secrete it, and will submit to any amount of suffering, or have recourse to begging in the streets, and the most humiliating and pertinacious supplications to obtain a loaf of bread from boards of health or the emigrant agents, rather than part with a shilling.'—(*Papers relative to Emigration*. 1847. P. 21.) The United States authorities required the railway companies and the masters of the passage vessels on the lakes to let the English, Scotch, and German emigrants pass, but to stop the Irish: and the ferryman at Lewiston was imprisoned for disregarding the injunction.

It is pretty clear that the occurrences of this year must have

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a still disheartening effect on Canadian emigration. The distressing invasion deters the colonists from offering encouragement to people of the labouring class to pass over—the miseries of which they hear prevent the same class from seeking to try their fortune across the Atlantic. Yet it appears that even in that overflowing year those who were of use were absorbed; and by this time it may fairly be predicted that all the disorganisation occasioned has been righted. The emigration agent stated it as his opinion, within a few months after they had landed, that two-thirds of them had settled and were employed in various parts of Canada. In the meantime the influence of better regulations is shewn by decrease of mortality. The number who died in 1850 was 213—not near 1 per cent.; the previous year it was nearer 3 per cent. Of the 213 deaths in 1850 the greater part were children—only 58 were adults.

In 1849 the Canadian legislature passed an act, following on the example set by the United States, placing, for the protection of the province, restraints on immigration. In its preamble it professed to make such provision 'as will tend to prevent the introduction into this province of a pauper emigration labouring under disease, and at the same time to encourage the introduction of a more healthy and useful class of emigrants.' By this act a tax is laid on the master of every emigrant vessel arriving at Quebec or Montreal, amounting to 7s. 6d. currency for every adult, and 5s. for every one between five and fifteen years old, on government emigrants, and 10s. for every other passenger. There is a provision for debiting the tax against the home government in the case of government emigrants. For any passengers who have joined the vessel after clearing, and are consequently not on the certified list, there is a considerable addition to the tax in the shape of penalty.

Lists of the passengers must be given in and certified; and they must specially indicate all who are lunatic, idiots, deaf and dumb, blind or infirm, stating whether they are accompanied by relatives likely to support them. For every such person who, on inquiry, is officially declared to be unlikely to be so supported, the master of the vessel must find security to the extent of £75 currency, to relieve the province and its charitable institutions from being burdened with the maintenance and support of such an immigrant for three years. It has been stated in the latest official documents from Canada, that this act has not been found very effective in saving the country from the class of immigrants whom it is not desirable to receive.

From the reports of Mr Buchanan, the emigration superintendent, it appears that the number of immigrants who reached

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the colony in 1848 was 27,939; in 1849, 38,494; and in 1850, 32,292; of whom 13,723 went to the States, from which 356 passed that year to Canada. The 38,494 who arrived in 1849 are reported to have disposed of themselves as follows, the numbers being in each case approximations by the superintendent:—In Quebec and its neighbourhood, 400; Eastern townships, 100; Montreal, and the district south of the St Lawrence, 2500—making about 3000 in East Canada. The number who had been ascertained to have gone to the United States by St John was 5305; distributed through the West Canada Districts were 26,687. The largest portion went to the Toronto, Home, and Simcoe Districts—namely, 11,520. In the Hamilton, Wellington, Gore, Brock, and London Districts, it is calculated that 6330 were distributed. Of those who passed to the west, 5172 are set down as having crossed to the United States; while it appears that 1700 had gone from or through the States to Western Canada. ‘In the early part of the season,’ says the superintendent, ‘I had occasion to notice the arrival of a number of families possessed of capital and intelligence, who promised to prove valuable additions to our colonial population. All these proceeded at once to purchase partially-improved properties, or to enter into trade. A proportion of the emigration consisted of farmers whose means will establish them with some advantage on wild lands, for the purchase of which only a small outlay is required. But the great bulk of the emigration has been agricultural labourers; some of them with small means, but very many having nothing even for their immediate support.’

LABOUR—WAGES—PRICES.

For mechanics, it is perhaps not the least advantage of Canada that it is close to the United States. The colony, however, affords better openings than the British possessions in the southern hemisphere, from the greater density of population, and the larger proportional number of towns and public works. Among the wages set down in the Official Circular of the Emigration Commissioners for 1851, there are bricklayers from 4s. to 5s. a day; bakers, 3s. in the eastern, and 4s. in the western province; carpenters, 5s. in the eastern, and 6s. 3d. in the western province; coopers, respectively, 3s. and 5s.; gardeners, 3s. 9d. to 4s. 6d.; shoemakers, 3s. in the eastern, and 6s. 3d. in the western province; sawyers, paid per 100 feet, 4s. 3d. in the eastern, and 5s. in the western province; stonemasons, 4s. 6d. to 5s.; tailors, 4s. to 6s. 3d., the latter in the western province; plasterers, a

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trade in much requisition, 5s. in the eastern, and 6s. 3d. in the western provinces. The remuneration to dressmakers and milliners seems to be under some peculiar depression in the eastern province, where it is quoted at 1s. a day. The amount in the western is 2s. 3d. There is a good deal of employment both for stonemasons and bricklayers—the one being preferred to the other according to the building material, and the habit of the place. It was long the practice, for instance, in Toronto and Hamilton, to use brick; while stone was employed in Montreal and Kingston. Farm-labourers are stated to receive 2s. 6d. in the eastern, and the same in the western province. For shepherds, the entry is, 'no employment.' In all out-of-door occupations, the nature of the seasons, and their effect on the kind of work, must be kept in view. Canada, in some measure, resembles the United States, in not being a place of refuge for inferior workmen; and the remarks to be made on the position of mechanics there, apply in a considerable degree to the same class in Canada; since their vicinity to each other keeps the two labour markets nearly on a level. The Emigration Commissioners, in their circular for 1851, have found it necessary in the meantime to say:

'It appears by information received from Mr Buchanan, the chief emigration agent at Quebec, that the demand for labour in Canada continues to be limited. A general depression of the trading interests, together with the discontinuance of the expenditure maintained for some years past in the construction of public works, has thrown out of present employment many artisans and mechanics, and a still larger number of common labourers.' The latest information, however, in the Commissioners' Annual Report is more cheering; and Mr Buchanan is there quoted as stating that the moderate emigration during the last two years is not more than sufficient to meet the demand left by the progress inwards of previous emigrants, and he says in continuation: 'The province is already extending its resources, and promises to offer a fair field for skilled labour.'

The occupation of the lumberer or woodcutter is of course open to the Canadian settler; but it is rather a pursuit to which some classes are driven by their destiny than one to be sought and courted. Its characteristics are hardship, danger, and vice. Attacked by so many moral and physical enemies, it is said that the lumberer rarely reaches the age of fifty. The following description is given by an experienced eye-witness of the ordinary characteristics which surround the lumberer:—'You stand before the fire made under three or four sticks set up tentwise, to which a large caldron is hung, bubbling and seething, with a very strong odour of fat pork: a boy, dirty and ill-favoured, with a sharp, glittering axe, looks very suspi-

ciously at you, but calls off his wolfish dog, who sneaks away. A moment shews you a long hut formed of logs of wood, with a roof of branches covered by birch-bark; and by its side, or near the fire, several nondescript sties or pens, apparently for keeping pigs in, formed of branches close to the ground, either like a boat turned upside down, or literally as a pigsty is formed as to shape. In the large hut, which is occasionally more luxurious, and made of slabs of wood or of rough boards, if a saw-mill is within reasonable distance, and there is a passable wood-road, or creek, or rivulet navigable by canoes, you see some barrel or two of pork, and of flour, or biscuit, or whisky, some tools, or some old blankets or skins. . . . The larger dwelling is the hall—the common hall—and the pigsties the sleeping-places.'—(*Bonnycastle's Canada and the Canadians*, i. 66.)

Near the settlements, the lumberers are much complained of in Canada as a sort of freebooters; cutting their timber wherever they find it most convenient for removal by water, and often in those places where the owner of an allotment would wish to have the trees at his own command. The lumberer generally deals with some speculator on the lake towns, or the St Lawrence, who chains him down by a system of credit, by providing him with the tools and other instruments of his trade, and the means of dissipation. It is exactly the same story over again as that of the logwood-men of Honduras, and the cedar-cutters of Moreton Bay. The wood is brought down the rapid rivers in small rafts or *drums*, the conductor of which encounters frightful perils, which he is incited to undergo, as horses return briskly to the stable, by expecting his speedy reward in city luxuries—amusement and whisky. On the lakes, several of these will be fixed together in a wide floating island, with flags, huts, and various contrivances for catching the breezes. The old used-up steam-boats are occasionally converted into lumber-vessels, superseding this method of transit. On the whole, it may be expected that, in various ways, science will soon invade this barbarous field of employment, and facilitate the removal of the forest coating, without exposing humanity to so many risks, physical and moral.

On the price of commodities, as on the wages of labour, the latest information that has reached this country can be obtained in the Circular of the Emigration Commissioners, sold for 2d. It must be remembered, that though a great part of the colony is pathless forest, it is not like the fresh settlements in Australia and New Zealand, where a commercial system for supplying the settlers with the necessaries and conveniences of life is only forming itself. Some of the towns in Canada are virtually as old as many of our own market-towns, and are full of accomplished

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tradesmen, who make it their business to supply the colonist; and who will import for him the articles he is likely to require at a much smaller expense than he will be able to take them out at himself. The most preposterous mistakes have been made by the humbler classes of emigrants, especially in the conveyance of ponderous articles of furniture; the materials of which have probably been conveyed to Britain from the very forests they are going to clear.

In general, in both the provinces, food is far cheaper than in this country. In the Emigration Circular for 1851, we have wheat from 3s. 9d. to 4s. per bushel, and butcher-meat from 2½d. to 4d. per lb. Produce is generally cheaper in the western province than in the eastern; but the proportional price of manufactures and mechanical productions is reversed; so a wagon is quoted as £10, 7s. in Lower, and £15 in Upper Canada; and blankets are quoted as 10s. to 12s. a pair in the former, and 15s. to 20s. in the latter.

In a return of 14th August 1850, the imports of British manufactures and produce into Canada are thus rated—Hardware and cutlery, £64,470; hats, £10,158; iron and steel, £208,391; lead and shot, £4971; leather, wrought and unwrought, £38,680; linen manufactures, entered by the yard, £15,033; thread and smallwares, £1122; machinery and mill-work, £210.

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THIS compact province lies between the latitudes of 45° and 48° north, and stretches in longitude from 63° 48' to 67° 30' west. On the south-east it is bounded by the Bay of Fundy, terminating at the narrow neck of land which joins New Brunswick to the peninsula of Nova Scotia. Making an angle with the bay, and bounding the province on the north-west, is the Gulf of St Lawrence, turning due west in the great inlet of Chaleur Bay, which thus forms a northern boundary. A line running from Passamaquoddy Bay to the north, with a westward inclination, keeping, when it has advanced inland, in the neighbourhood of the St John River, separates the province from the state of Maine of the American Union. Its boundary-line on this side was the cause of the celebrated discussion which ended in the treaty of 1842. The province covers about 26,000 square miles, with a population approaching a quarter of a million.

The history of this province presents little as distinct from that of the other American colonies to affect the interests of the settler. Under the dominion of France, it was chiefly in military occupation, and appears to have been scantily settled. The proportion of French families still remaining is small in comparison with the Habitans of Canada, but there are still several Acadians, chiefly in the eastern districts. The establishment of British settlers began in 1761. Their position was necessarily rendered precarious by the outbreak of the American war, but the staple of the colony was subsequently framed of loyalists and other refugees. The district was erected into a separate province in 1784. Its subsequent importance has been chiefly owing to the fisheries, and to the influence on the lumber trade of the duties on Baltic timber. As an emigration field, it received a terrible check in 1826, from a calamity of a peculiar and appalling kind. The celebrated fire in Miramichi at once horrified and astonished all the civilised world; and perhaps, for the first time, conveyed an adequate notion of the vastness and compactness of the North American forests. When first recorded in the newspapers, it appeared like some wild fiction. People were accustomed to hear of tenements being burned down before their unfortunate inhabitants could escape, and of several thus perishing in some great city conflagration; but that the fire should literally travel over a province—that its influence should be felt for days before it actually reached its victims—and that they should find, with both the land and the water before them, no means of escape from its devastating approach, seemed something incomprehensible. It was stated, that for some time the inhabitants of the settlements along the Miramichi River had been conscious of a strange, sultry, oppressive heat, and heard a sort of distant roaring in the recesses of the forest, mingled with faint sounds like explosions, or the crash of fallen trees. As the heat grew greater, a dense mass of smoke-coloured cloud gathered overhead. The clearings from the forest formed unfortunately a mere strip; but a quarter of a mile wide—and the great amphitheatre of flame, spread over a surface of several thousands of square miles, filled it with fiery air, which ignited the wooden houses and stores of the hapless settlers. Anything more frightful than the devastation occasioned has never been known, save in the earthquakes of Portugal and South America. The towns or villages—of which one, Newcastle, contained 1000 inhabitants—were almost entirely reduced to ashes; and the burned bodies of the inhabitants lay putrefying among those of wild beasts driven through the forest before the flames. Such conflagrations on a smaller scale are a calamity to which this province is always liable. These fires, unfortunately, leave

no compensation for their immediate mischief, as their effect is to destroy the fertility of the soil, instead of clearing it for cultivation.

There are few great mountains in this territory, but the ground is in general broken by precipitous hills, and large rivers rolling in deep rocky beds. The vastness of the forest-clothing may be imagined from the catastrophe of Miramichi, and this peculiarity prevents the surface of the uncleared parts of the interior from being well known. There are many lakes, some of them picturesque, clear sheets of water; others marshy. The principal river, the St John, running near the boundary with the United States, is in some respects a series of lakes. It is navigable for small vessels for about 230 miles, when they are stopped by the great falls, and the upper navigation can only be accomplished by canoes. The Miramichi also, a broad, lakelike river, falls into the Gulf of St Lawrence. Four rivers run into Bathurst Harbour in Chaleur Bay, of which the most important is the Nepisiguit, a rapid, full stream, leaping over some great cataracts.

The presence of many granitic and other primitive rocks would, in general, intimate the absence of a very rich soil. But the granite, with the sienite and trap, are described as generally of the friable kinds, which readily triturate and decompose, becoming elements in the formation of a finely-pulverised earth, suitable for the growth of wheat, oats, and maize. There are at the same time spaces between the eminences, containing deep alluvial brown mould. Many of these are called beaver meadows, because they have been formed by the draining of the small lakes, caused by the dams of these industrious animals, who disappear when man makes even a distant approach to their abodes. When the settler is fortunate enough to obtain one of these patches, it may be suddenly transformed by him, as if by magic, from a cold-looking, half-swampy lake into the richest garden or agricultural ground, producing a succession of full crops without manure.

Mr Johnston, in his Notes on North America, describes numerous stretches of soft, rich, alluvial soil, of the kind called in the province *intervale*. It is found often along the banks of the rivers; and he remarks: 'These lowlands are liable to be flooded when the ice melts in spring, but they are, nevertheless, very healthy. There are no agues in the country. I have heard of none indeed in the whole province, even where water, and bogs, and marshes most abounded. These spring floods no doubt contributed to the richness of the land; but the best-situated or most esteemed farms here, are those which consist partly of this low *intervale* land, and partly of upland.' From the impetuous character of the rivers, and the quantity of organic and mineral matter brought down by them, large stretches of marsh-land have been

formed near their mouths, and have been diked in and drained like the Dutch polders. Many of the Dutch settlers, indeed, from native habit, have shewn a partiality for these marshes. Mr Johnston mentions a tract of land, upwards of 1000 acres, thus diked on the St John, consisting of 'a black, spongy, vegetable mould,' of inferior quality, and capable of yielding large crops of hay, but not well adapted for cereal cultivation. 'The marsh-land,' he says, 'of St John lies in a narrow valley, bordered by high ground on each side, but itself very little elevated above the sea. The upper end of the flat is only two feet above high-water mark; but as the tide rises here twenty-seven feet, its height is considerably above mean-water level, and the entrance of high tides is prevented by a sluice at the mouth of the valley. I visited what is considered one of the best farms on this flat. It consists of 120 acres of marsh and 100 of upland. The upland is partially cleared, and affords pasture and firewood, but the marsh alone is under arable culture. The whole is rented for £150 a year currency. It requires high manuring; but when well cultivated, any part of it, the tenant said, would produce four tons, and I was assured that five tons of hay was occasionally reaped from such land.'

But the same gentleman has noticed a larger breadth of diked marsh-land, of a far superior quality, at the upper waters of the Bay of Fundy, and near the neck of land which separates the province from Nova Scotia. Here at Cumberland Bay four streams near each other make a sort of delta, consisting of stretches of marsh-land, with headlands between. 'I roughly estimated,' says Mr Johnston, 'that there are upwards of 20,000 acres of this flat land, diked and undiked, in the district under my eye, and spread all around the head waters of the Cumberland basin. Where not entirely swampy and barren, the produce varies from one to three tons of hay per acre; but take the average produce of the whole at only half a ton an acre, and the owners may yearly reap 100,000 tons of hay from these levels, supposing some of them to be in arable culture. This would feed 30,000 head of cattle, which, if raised for beef, and killed at three years old, would supply to the markets of New Brunswick about 10,000 head of fat cattle every year.' At the same time, he considered that every ton of hay so used, along with the marsh-mud, ought to fertilise an acre of upland. This state of matters he justly considered appropriate to the circumstance frequently brought under his notice, 'that New Brunswick does not produce a sufficiency of first-class butcher-meat for its own markets, and that its shipping is chiefly supplied with salt provisions from the United States, because the beef of the province will not stand salt.'

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In its climate this territory is of course not exempt from those extremes which characterise the North American countries. The variations are not entirely those of the season, for great changes in temperature will take place in the course of a day—the south wind bringing comparative mildness, while the north wind comes fraught, even in the middle of summer, with icy drafts from the pole. At Frederickton, pretty far inland on the St John River, the thermometer ranges from 95° to 35° below zero, and yet this is in the southern part of a province the whole of which lies south of England. It has been stated, however, by observing settlers, that the progress of improvement is ameliorating the climate; the period when frost and snow prevail becoming shorter, as the dense forest covering becomes removed from the surface of the earth, and the swamps are improved. Thus it has been observed that about twenty years ago winter began early in November and remained until the conclusion of April, while in later years it has not set in with all its rigour until after the middle of December, and the early weeks of April have seen the thaw and the symptoms of opening spring. The severest cold generally extends from the last week of December to the end of the last week of March. Then, as in the other North American provinces, nature is sealed up, and the inhabitants—at least those whose pursuits are out of doors, forming of course the preponderating bulk—have to give themselves to idleness or pleasure. Towards the conclusion of March alternations of thaw and frost are perceived, and as April advances the weather becomes genial. Ploughing then begins, followed by all other agricultural and horticultural operations; and the genial and frost-cleared soil, nourished by the rapidly-advancing heat of the sun, vegetates with the well-known rapidity of the western hemisphere. With all its varieties—part of which are cold, foggy winds, which fill the air with damp rawness and darkness—the climate has on all hands the reputation of being extremely healthy.

The province forms thirteen counties, increasable as population may render expedient. Their names are chiefly taken from those of England—as Gloucester, Cumberland, Kent, &c. There are no great generic differences in their characteristics, rendering it necessary to consider them separately; and the chief distinction is what occurs throughout the greater part of the globe—namely, that between the inland territories and those on the navigable parts of the rivers, or on the sea-shore, where, as will presently be seen, the opportunities for fishing operations are peculiarly great. In the surveys for a railway from Halifax to Quebec, the advantages of penetrating this province were of course fully considered. The surveyor, in his report, alluded largely to the

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favourable characteristics of the district. He observed that it was plentifully watered, and penetrated by streams; and in some parts of the interior, for a portage of three or four miles, a water-communication may be opened with the Bay of Chaleur and the Gulf of St Lawrence on the one side, and with the Bay of Fundy on the other. The officers employed to survey the line of the Halifax and Quebec Railway say—

‘For any great plan of emigration or colonisation, there is not another British colony which presents so favourable a field for the trial as New Brunswick.

‘To 17,000,000 of productive acres, there are only 208,000 inhabitants. Of these, 11,000,000 are still public property.

‘On the surface is an abundant stock of the finest timber, which, in the markets of England, realise large sums annually, and afford an unlimited supply of fuel to the settlers. If these should ever become exhausted, there are the coal-fields underneath.

‘The rivers, lakes, and sea-coasts abound with fish. Along the Bay of Chaleur it is so abundant that the land smells of it. It is used as manure; and while the olfactory nerves of the traveller are offended by it on the land, he sees out at sea immense shoals darkening the surface of the water.’

The emigrants landed at Halifax would, by the line of railway, be easily conveyed to the interior, and would avoid what is often the most difficult and dangerous step in the process of an emigrant's removal. New Brunswick has been an importing district of food. Wheat, the growth of the valley of the Mississippi, is imported to St John, ground there, and consumed by the labouring population. Two hundred thousand pounds is the estimated average sum paid annually for provisions from the United States, which it is believed that the province, if opened up by a railway, and otherwise aided by enterprise, would itself produce.

Frederickton, on the upper part of the St John, is the seat of government, and so nominally the capital of the province, but it is not the largest town. The population has been rated at 6000. At the mouth of the same river is the largest town of the colony—the flourishing city of St John, said, with its extensive suburbs, to have 30,000 inhabitants. It is the great commercial port, and its name is that by which the New Brunswick timber is known in the market. It has a less agreeable renown from the fearful conflagrations that have sometimes swept away its streets of wooden edifices. Close to the harbour there is a curious phenomenon in the course of the River St John. It passes between two rocky eminences over a ledge, or rather dike. It is not so high but that the tide is still higher; and the consequence is, that when

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the tide has risen pretty far, and is rising, there is a slight fall in the direction of the source of the river; and when the tide is receding, a much larger and more formidable fall in the direction of the mouth. At a particular point, and for a very short time only, vessels can pass this bar.

Produce.—The great staple commodity of this country is timber; a harvest not requiring to be raised, but affording a double inducement to its removal, in being itself useful, and making room for cultivation. The vastness of the forest district may be imagined from the calamity of Miramichi. The trees, besides the predominant pine, consist of maple, ash, oak, beech, birch, and ironwood. About 150,000 tons of timber are annually exported from the colony. We have no recent returns of the saw-mills, but in 1834 they numbered 314, and the timber which passed through them was valued at near £500,000 at the place of shipment. As elsewhere mentioned, the ready supply of wood had at one time at least given encouragement to considerable shipbuilding in the province. It need scarcely be mentioned that the settler finds it supply him with abundant fuel.

Grain is the natural industrial produce of the colony; but the clearings have heretofore been so comparatively small, that it is an importing rather than an exporting country. The lumber or timber trade has hitherto been the staple occupation of the province, interfering with agriculture. It is, however, pretty clear that its future hopes must rest on the latter occupation; and Mr Johnston, in his valuable notes on North America, confidently predicts that it will be found a surer and more satisfactory reliance than lumbering. The wheat produced is said to be very heavy, and in every respect of fine quality. On the general productiveness of small clearings, Mr Perley, the government emigration agent, thus gave evidence before the Lords' Committee of 1847 :—

‘If you put a man down upon a piece of wilderness with two hundred acres of land, how long is it before that man can do anything with that land, so as to enable himself to live upon it?—He should the second season, after securing a crop. I assume that in the first season he begins too late to put in a crop.’

‘How long is it before he secures a crop?—It depends upon the time the man goes on the land, whether early or late, in the first season. The better course, and which I recommend them to adopt, is to hire themselves out the first season, and at the close of the year, if they do not get employment for the winter, they have some months to work on their own land. During the winter they chop a piece down, erect a log-house, and get upon the land in the spring. If a man is industrious and successful in getting his land cleared in the spring, and getting in his crop, he may secure enough that season to

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maintain himself and his family for the succeeding year. Having done that, he is safe.

'Do you grow wheat in New Brunswick?—Of the very best quality.

'What is the weight of your wheat as compared with American wheat?—It is much heavier. The New Brunswick wheat reaches sixty-five pounds the bushel, and even more.

'Do they grow Indian corn?—It is not a certain crop. We grow buckwheat; but the great crops of the country are oats and potatoes; oats more especially; they are a very safe crop.

'Have not your potatoes failed lately?—They failed in the year 1845.

'Will you state the progress of the potato failure in New Brunswick?—In 1844 there was a partial failure of the potato crop. The disease reached us from the westward. It came from the United States. It gradually crept its way over the boundary-line, and got in upon us, and kept proceeding from west to east. In 1845 the crop of potatoes suffered very much indeed; in fact, as much as it suffered in Ireland last year; but in 1846 the disease disappeared to a very considerable extent, and there was nearly an average crop of very good quality.'

As on the coasts of all the North American colonies, fish abound on those of New Brunswick. Along with the ordinary white fish, herring and mackerel are so profusely found at times as to be used for manure; lobsters can be picked up in cartloads; and in the mud deposits at the mouths of the rivers a very fine kind of oysters is spoken of as being abundant. Inconsiderable efforts only have been made to take advantage of these resources. The superior energy of the inhabitants of the United States is here developed, since, notwithstanding all complaints of breach of treaty, they fish extensively along the 500 miles of the New Brunswick coast; and since they apply to useful purposes a field neglected by our colonists, do good rather than harm to the settlement by the trade they carry on with it.

The minerals of New Brunswick are not at present at least of great moment to the emigrant. A coal-field covers nearly a third of the area of the province. It may be doubtful whether railway operations will lead to its being more extensively worked, but for the needs of a scattered population the refuse timber is generally more than sufficient. Iron ore is abundant; lead has been found, and rich veins of copper. Limestone abounds and is worked, and a very serviceable kind of millstone is cut and exported.

Mr Johnston appears to think that the vast masses of gypsum, hitherto almost unused and unnoticed, must have great influence in forwarding the agricultural capacities of the country.

Purchase and Improvement of Land.—The waste lands of the

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crown in this province are sold at a minimum price of 3s. currency, or about 2s. 6d. sterling per acre. This is the absolute price in reality, as it is only in peculiarly favourable circumstances that there is any competition. The working of the system of sales can be best told in the words of Mr Perley, the emigration agent, when examined before the Lords' Committee of 1847 :—

'Land is now sold in New Brunswick by auction, under the Civil List Act, at 3s. currency per acre as the minimum upset price. A party desiring a lot of land applies by petition for the lot that he is desirous of obtaining. If unsurveyed, an order is sent to him for a survey, of which he bears the expense. On the return of the survey it is advertised one month to be sold in the county where the land lies. If surveyed, upon an application being made, it is at once advertised to be sold at the monthly sale. In the one case, the party advances the expense of the survey; in the other, an established price of threepence per acre is added to the minimum price of land. The party attends at the sale, and if he purchases and pays down the money, he obtains a discount of twenty per cent. for prompt payment. If he does not pay for the land, he pays one-fourth, and enters into a bond to the crown for the remaining three-fourths, payable in one, two, and three years without interest, and receives a location ticket. The money is transmitted by the local deputy to the receiver-general of the province, and eventually finds its way into the general revenues of the country. If a settler purchases a piece of ground in the wilderness to which there is no road, he may languish on for years without getting one, because the money which he pays for the land goes into the provincial treasury, and it does not at all follow that it shall be applied to making a road to the land. It is appropriated generally by the local legislature with other monies of the province.'

Those who have the improvement of the province most at heart have long advocated the construction of roads as an essential engine for bringing out its resources. It is obvious that a forest country is more dependent on such perforations than a prairie or pasture country: it is, in fact, a blank without them. A plan was devised and adopted by the legislature for connecting the making of roads with the acquisition of lands.

A provincial act was passed in 1849 to facilitate the disposal of the waste lands, which in reality does not create a law or system for their disposal, but authorises the governor to sell, as any owner may do, as he thinks best in each individual instance, provided no lot be sold at less than 3s. an acre, or contain more than 100 acres. With this limitation, the act authorises him, 'with a view to the early disposal of the vacant crown-lands to persons who are able and willing to improve the same, to cause portions thereof to be surveyed and laid off in such place and in such way

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and manner as may be deemed most advisable.' The importance of the settlers opening up the means of communication as a part of the value given for their holdings has been felt in this province; and in the bargain made with any proposed settler, the price he has to pay may be either in money or the making of roads. An act was at the same time passed for enabling settlers to clear off their arrears of purchase-money by making roads. Mr Johnston, in his tour through the province, found this system in operation. A certain section for settlement is divided into lots of eighty acres each. Any person may get a grant of one of these lots on payment of no more than 1s. per acre, to defray the expense of the grant and survey; at the same time engaging to give labour on the roads, at a fixed price per rood, to the amount of £12—thus making the entire price of his land £16. This sum, however, is in currency: in money sterling, the amount is about one-fourth less. In speaking of this advantageous opening for settlers with limited means, Mr Johnston mentions: 'That a body of emigrants arriving in June would be able to open the road, cut down four acres on each of these lots for crops on the following spring, and build a log-house before the winter sets in. Of course they must have means to maintain themselves and families during the winter, and until the crops on their new lands are ripe. Bodies of emigrants from the same county or neighbourhood, going out as a single party, would work pleasantly together, and be good company and agreeable neighbours to each other.'

In 1849, a valuable report by a Committee on 'Immigration and the Settlement of Wild Lands' in New Brunswick, was laid before the governor in council. In noticing the method of allotment which had been previously pursued, they find fault with the length of some of the lots—in some instances with a river frontage of thirty rods only, but extending seven miles back. They find another defect in the large allotments held by individuals who do not intend to improve them, but retain them with the expectation of selling them profitably, as the settlement of the province advances. This report contains valuable information on the resources of the several parts of the colony, and especially on the nature and extent of the unsettled lands; and its value as information from authority prompts us to give several extracts from this document:—

'Some of the prevailing ideas among those who have not seen the province appear to be, that the settlements are very few and remote from each other; that they are separated by dense forests abounding with beasts of prey; that there are great numbers of Indians, to whose depredations the settlers are constantly exposed; that there are no churches or schools, except in the towns; that good roads

are nowhere to be found; that the cold of our winters is so intense, that the inhabitants are continually in danger of being frozen to death, and very often dare not venture out of their houses; that no such field crops can be grown here as are cultivated in Great Britain; that our soil is of a very inferior quality; and that we are subject to all the epidemics and agues which afflict the southern and western portion of this continent from Florida to Lake Huron.

'It is no wonder, therefore, that with such impressions the emigrant seeks for other countries, and will not cast his lot among us, involved, as he supposes, in such adverse circumstances.

'But these impressions are altogether erroneous: in every part of the province there are extensive and continuous settlements.... There are upwards of 500 parish, besides other schools, scattered over the rural districts, and upwards of 200 churches and chapels of different denominations of Christians. There is no danger to be apprehended from beasts of prey, or from the Indians, very few of whom now survive. No colony of the empire, and no state of the neighbouring Union is better provided with roads than New Brunswick; every kind of field and garden crops cultivated in England can be grown in this province, with the addition of Indian corn.

'More persons, we believe, have perished from cold in England and Scotland in twenty years, in proportion to the population, than in this colony....

'Agricultural operations are generally commenced about the middle of April, and cease about the middle of November. From this period the prevalence of frost and snow prevents the labours of the husbandman as respects the soil. Yet the industrious farmer can always find employment during the winter, as it is the most favourable season for cutting and hauling fuel, and rails for fences, and for transporting grain and other produce to market; and so far from condemning the climate because of our winters, there is not a farmer in the country who would dispense with them, although some might prefer them of shorter duration.'....

Mr Johnston gives a description of a farm of 1000 acres on the St John. It contained three kinds of land: '*First*,' he says, 'an island in the river of eighty acres, to which I crossed, and found it a free gray loamy clay, full of natural richness, and subject to be overflowed only twice during the last thirty years. *Second*, Intervale land, generally light and sandy, but bearing in some places good turnips, and resting upon a loamy clay resembling that of the island, at a depth in some places of no more than eighteen inches from the surface. *Third*, The rest is upland on the slopes, generally very stony, but on other parts of the farm capable of being easily cleared.' This farm, he said, cost £2000 currency, or £1600 sterling. 'It had been exhausted by the last holder by a system of selling off everything—hay, corn, potatoes—the common system, in fact, of North America, of selling every-

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thing for which a market can be got, and taking no trouble to put anything into the soil in return.' He describes another farm of 1025 acres, of which but eighty acres were cleared, fifty of them being intervale. The intervale was valued at £15 an acre, the cleared upland at £3, and the whole farm at from £1200 to £1500.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF SETTLEMENTS.

'The county of *St John*, on the western shore of the Bay of Fundy, contains an area of 586 square miles, and a population of about 45,000, with forty-eight parish schools.

'The city of *St John*, including the suburbs, contains about 30,000, and is accessible by ships of the largest class at all seasons of the year. Although this county is much broken and rocky, yet many fine farms attest the success which follows persevering industry.

'Very little ungranted land fit for settlement is found in this county, except at the north-east extremity near the county of *Albert*, where a good tract, possessing many superior advantages, is open to application. The salmon, shad, and herring fisheries of the Bay of Fundy are very valuable; and although they yield a large and profitable return to those who engage therein, they have never yet been prosecuted to that extent which their value and importance demand.

'*King's County*, the next in order, contains 1328 square miles, with a population of about 19,000, and sixty-four parish schools.

'Many parts of this county are highly cultivated, and present some of the finest scenery in the province.

'The principal part has been granted, and the remainder is being rapidly disposed of. Its proximity to the city of *St John* has given it a market which has insured a ready sale for its surplus produce. The great road from *Halifax* to *Quebec* passes through this county for a distance of seventy-five miles, and a line of railway is projected, and has been recently surveyed, passing through this county from *St John* to the Gulf of *St Lawrence*, which, when opened, will unite with the contemplated trunk-line from *Halifax* to *Quebec*, and will greatly contribute to the general interests of this section of the province.

'The next on the *St John River* is *Queen's County*, containing 1502 square miles, and a population of 10,000, with forty-seven parish schools.

'Some of the best farms in the province are found in this county, and large tracts of good land are yet undisposed of.

'Several leases of coal-mines have been lately granted on the *Grand Lake*, and extensive operations are being commenced, which promise to create a valuable trade, and to give employment to a large number of operatives.

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' A road has been explored between the head of the Grand Lake and Richibucto, in the county of Kent, which will open up a valuable tract of country for settlement, presenting to settlers a choice of markets between St John and Richibucto.

' This locality is strongly recommended for immediate settlement if a good class of emigrants can be had for the purpose.

' *The county of Sunbury* contains an area of 1222 square miles, a population of 5000, and twenty-four parish schools.

' Extensive and valuable farms are seen on both banks of the river, and some good tracts of ungranted land remain for sale.

' The River Oromocto, with its branches, present some flourishing settlements.

' This county and Queen's contain an immense extent of the finest alluvial land, and some of the most productive and fertile islands in the River St John.

' *The county of York* contains an area of 3440 square miles, with a population of 21,000, and sixty parish schools. The city of Fredericton, the seat of government, is in this county, on the right bank of the river, distant from St John, by the river seventy-five, and by the road sixty-six, miles.

' Five steamers, with numerous sailing vessels, ply night and day with freight and passengers, during the navigation, between Fredericton and St John.

' The tract of land granted to the Nova Scotia and New Brunswick Land Company has left but a small portion at the disposal of the government on the eastern side of the river below the Nackawick. Extensive settlements are found on the Nashwalk and Keswick Rivers, and on the rear-land between those rivers and the upper line of the county. On the western side of the river there are numerous back settlements.

' At the distance of twenty-four miles from Fredericton, on the great road to St Andrew's, is the Harvey Settlement, formed in 1837 by emigrants from Northumberland (England), and which, by its present thriving condition, proves what can be done by sober and industrious men even on an inferior quality of soil.

' Accompanying this is a tabular return of the state of the settlement in 1843, with the remarks of the commissioner.

' With such settlers for our ungranted lands, the most astonishing and gratifying results would soon be manifest.

' In the vicinity of Harvey is an Irish settlement, formed in December 1841, under the gratuitous management of the same commissioner, whose report and return accompany those of the Harvey Settlement, and furnish an additional proof of the success attending persevering industry.

' Some good tracts of land are still ungranted beyond the Harvey, on the Magadavic River and its branches and lakes, and in the vicinity of the contemplated railway between St Andrew's and Woodstock.

' A few miles below Eel River, the Howard Settlement is forming,

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in the midst of a tract of excellent land, and capable of settling several hundred additional families.

'At a distance of forty-eight miles from Frederickton commences the county of *Carleton*, which extends upwards to the frontiers of Canada and the United States. This county has been more rapidly cleared and improved within the last fifteen years than any other county of the province: it contains an area of 4050 square miles, and a population of 21,000.

'On the western side of the river, up to the Arestock, some of the settlements extend back to the American frontier, and nearly all the land has been granted.

'Several large tracts belonging to absentees present a great obstruction to the settlement of this district, which will not probably be removed for a long time, unless by legislative interference.

'The soil throughout this section of country is deep and rich, and under good cultivation would soon render it one of the most productive portions of the province.

'This county is rich in iron ore, and a company recently formed, for the purpose of working a mine near Woodstock, is now in operation; and from the superior quality of the ore, and the facility for working and bringing it to market, an extensive business will ere-long be carried on in the manufacture of iron.

'Two steamers now run between Frederickton and Woodstock, and a third will be put on next year to ply between Woodstock and the Grand Falls, a distance of sixty miles.

'The Tobique River, which empties into the St John about forty miles above Woodstock, is of great extent, and offers superior facilities for immediate settlement on a large scale. Gypsum and free-stone of the finest quality are found on this river.

'An extensive tract of good land lies on the eastern side of the St John, from the county line upward, past the Grand Falls, which, if opened by roads, would form an attractive and valuable locality for settlers.

'To the southward of York, Sunbury, Queen's and King's, lies the county of *Charlotte*, containing an area of 1224 square miles, with a population of about 22,000, and sixty-nine parish schools. This county contains many expensive and valuable settlements, but very little good land remains ungranted.

'The counties of *Westmoreland* and *Albert* lie to the northward and eastward of St John and King's, and contain a population of about 25,000, with ninety-eight parish schools, and cover an area of 2112 square miles. The most extensive and valuable marshes in the province are in Westmoreland, and furnish facilities for grazing of unrivalled value; and although the agricultural community of this county is esteemed the richest in the province, they have never yet availed themselves, as they might have done, of the resources of their uplands, which lie in many instances comparatively neglected.

'The shad-fishing of this district is not surpassed by any other in

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the world. Cannel coal, of a superior quality, has been discovered in Albert, and promises an extensive and valuable trade.

'The greater part of Albert is ungranted, and embraces a large tract of land of the finest quality, presenting one of the most eligible situations for immediate settlement in that section of the province.

'The county of *Kent* covers an area 1260 square miles, and contains about 9000 inhabitants, with thirty-five parish schools.

'Extensive cultivation is found along the coast, and on the Richibucto River; but a large tract of ungranted land, of a good description, still remains, and through which the line of projected railway from Halifax to Quebec passes.

'The coal-formation extends to this county, and may be worked at small expense.

'The harbour of Richibucto is safe and commodious, and the river admits of vessels of the largest class for some distance.

'*Northumberland* includes an area of 5000 square miles, with 20,000 inhabitants, and fifty-three parish schools.

'This county presents a large extent of cultivated land, and some of the best specimens of husbandry in the province.

'A vast tract of ungranted land is contained within this county, the most eligible whereof, for immediate settlement, is on the north-west and south-west branches of the Miramichi River, in rear of the front lots. An excellent road affords communication between this county and the seat of government.

'*Gloucester* and *Restigouche*, the two most northern counties, lie on the Gulf of St Lawrence and the Bay of Chaleurs, and include an area of about 4000 square miles, with a population of only 15,000, and thirty-seven parish schools.

'The quality of the soil is generally good, and in many parts of a very superior description. For many years past this has been the best wheat-growing district in the province.

'The settlements in these counties are principally along the coast; but the extent of ungranted land in the rear from Shippegan to the head of the Restigouche River, and the superior quality of the soil, with the valuable fisheries of the bays and rivers, recommend this district as one of the most desirable in the province for the immediate settlement of large bodies of emigrants.

'The country above Dalhousie is principally settled by Scotch, who are in very prosperous circumstances, and contented with their situation.

'The projected line of railway from Halifax to Quebec passes through these counties, down the Nepisiguit to Bathurst, and from thence to a point above Campbell Town, and when opened, will soon render this section of country, in an agricultural point of view, the most valuable and prosperous of any in the province.

'The vast tract lying between the Restigouche and the St John Rivers, containing several millions of acres, presents a wide field for settlement, and which could be opened and made available as soon as a sufficient number of approved settlers were found to enter upon and cultivate the land.

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'In addition to the ungranted wilderness lands, there are always in different parts of the province improved lots, with dwelling-houses and barns, which can be purchased at a reasonable rate; and if an agency were established for the purpose, a great number of emigrants could be provided with such lots, at a cost ranging from one to five pounds currency per acre, including the unimproved land.

'To persons possessing £150 and upwards, this course would be most desirable for themselves, and most advantageous to the province, should the purchasers be skilful agriculturists, as in such case any improved system they might introduce would soon recommend itself, and be adopted by those around them.

'Notwithstanding the defective system of agriculture generally pursued in the province, the average produce per acre is large, which proves the natural strength and fertility of the soil; but in those cases where the system of rotation has been adopted with high cultivation, the average produce will compare with some of the best districts in Great Britain.

'Take, for example, the following crops per acre, which have been produced in different parts of the province:—

Wheat,	-	-	40 bushels, some weighing 68 lbs. per bushel.
Barley,	-	-	40
Oats,	-	-	60
Indian Corn,	-	-	75 bushels per acre.
Buckwheat,	-	-	75 ...
Peas,	-	-	40 ...
Turnips,	-	-	1,000 ...
Potatoes,	-	-	800 ...
Carrots,	-	-	30 tons. ...
Mangel-Wurtzel,	-	-	30 ...

In 1849 the surveyor-general made a report on the condition of the crown-lands, in which he stated generally:—'It may be considered as a fact, that this province presents eight millions of acres of vacant crown-land, of unexceptionable quality, fit for agricultural purposes.' In a view of the then latest transactions as to waste lands, he had to say—

'The number of petitions received for the purchase of land, from 1st January 1848 to 1st January 1849, is 969, which, on an average of 100 acres each, would comprise 96,900 acres. Of this number, 938 have required to be surveyed at the expense of the applicant, of which 510 are not yet returned as surveyed, and consequently no further action has been had upon them. The total number of acres which have been surveyed within the year is 31,350, at a cost to the applicants of £831, averaging about 6½d. an acre, or £2, 14s. 2d. per lot of 100 acres; a sum far exceeding that for which the same work could be performed by the government under a systematic arrangement of survey. . . .

'The whole quantity of land purchased during the year 1848

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amounted to 26,761½ acres, of which 14,777 acres have been paid for in full, and upon which £1789, 19s. 3d. have been received; leaving 11,984½ acres which have been sold under the instalment system, and upon which £473, 3s. 4d. have been received.

‘I feel it my duty at this place to state, that no less a sum than £22,831, 13s. 3d. appears, by the books of my office, to be still due upon previous land transactions; but many of the original purchasers, I have reason to believe, have abandoned the land and left the country, and yet their names still remain on the books and plans of this office, as having a claim to the land in question. The area covered by these claims cannot be less than 150,000 acres.’

Of the extent of the timber licences he gave this account:—

‘The timber licences for the past year, and which will expire on 1st May next, cover an area of 2157 square miles, at an average rate of 16s. 8½d. per mile, producing to the end of the year £1992, 8s. The highest rate paid for any one lot was £20, 1s. per square mile, being a licence for nine square miles, situate on the left bank of the river St Croix, about twenty-five miles above St Stephen. The quantity of land under licence in 1847 was 5360 square miles, which produced the sum of £3585, 7s. 9d.; the highest price paid per square mile being £5, the whole quantity averaging only 10s. 5½d. per square mile. By the above your excellency will perceive that the system of auction has this past year produced some beneficial results, having increased the rate from 10s. to 16s. 8½d. per square mile, although only sixty-eight lots were contested.’

His estimate of the mining transactions was:—

‘The mining transactions of this department may be stated to be twenty-three leases now extant—namely, one in Gloucester, four in Carleton, two in York, two in Sunbury, six in Queen’s, one in Northumberland, two in Kent, one in St John, one in Westmoreland, one in Albert, and two in Charlotte. The whole have realised the sum of £365, 10s. Two rights only were sold during the last year—one for £35, and the other for £5. All these leases are held subject to the regulations which existed at the several periods when they were taken out.’

In pursuance of the plan already mentioned, of opening up the country by a system of roads, to be made by the settlers as a sort of commutation of the money-price of their allotments, reports were required in 1848 from the deputy-surveyors of the counties to the surveyor-general. They of course referred chiefly to the practicability of roads in the districts, to the engineering difficulties to be overcome, the materials accessible, the direction to be most conveniently taken, and other matters which would naturally be of great importance to persons already settled in the country, but could scarcely be taken into consideration by the class to whom these pages are addressed—namely, persons proposing to emigrate, and desirous of knowing whether New Bruns-

wick generally is a settlement likely to suit their views. It, however, necessarily came within the province of the reporters to notice how far road-communication was valuable in their respective counties, from the industrial resources it might develop, and the consequent inducement afforded to settlers. In many of the reports there is thus more or less said on this subject; and having perused the reports themselves, the general ability and practical application of which give one a high idea of the capacity of the useful class of officers by whom they are made, it is thought that the few passages which seem to bear on the availableness of each county for settlement may be usefully printed. The passages extracted are given in a series, under the name of the county to which each belongs. They will necessarily have a disjointed appearance, but they have considerable value in this country, as coming direct from the class who know more than any other of the particular locality to which each refers.

'*King's County* does not embrace any large tracts of good land unoccupied. The largest tract lies between the road formerly opened between the head of Mill Stream and New Canaan Settlement and Spring Hill Settlement. There is good land on both sides of this road. The distance between those settlements is about eight miles, and embraces Thorn's Brook, &c. In many parts of this tract there is good land for agricultural purposes, and in other parts the land is of an inferior quality; but there can be no doubt, that in case those settlements were connected by good roads, eventually the whole would be occupied. There is also some good land between the Baskin Settlement, north-east of Dutch Valley, and the Mechanics' Settlement. As I have never explored this section of country, all the information I possess is derived from other sources. I am also informed there is good land north-east of the old Shepody Road, and also south-east thereof, extending nearly to the bay shore, but I am unable to give any correct statement thereof.'

'*St John*.—After leaving the sea-coast, the road would pass along a table-land, covered with heavy timber, and possessing a deep soil of good quality. The country is well watered, and in every respect fit for settlement and cultivation. . . .

'There is considerable vacant land at the western extremity of this country as yet almost unexplored and unknown. As there are no settlements with which it could be connected advantageously, I am unable at present to make any recommendation respecting it.

'*Albert*.—The land is very level, and of an excellent quality for settling. . . .

'There is nothing to prevent running a number of roads back on a north line to the Coverdale River, through a large level tract of land, and the best land for settling in the county; and if roads were once opened through this tract, I think it would be immediately settled.

'Carleton.—From the superior quality of the excellent tract of country lying between the first and fourth settlements, I have every reason to believe that the intermediate spaces will be taken up before twelve months. From what I can learn, we shall have the greater part of young Frenchmen (who are now living on the American side) locating themselves on our back settlements. . . .

'In all my travelling through the interior of this province, particularly in the north-eastern part of it, I have not met with such a large tract of beautiful country as that lying between the Salmon River and Green River, extending back about from ten to fifteen miles, 'hence extending itself on a parallel course with the River St John upwards of thirty miles. Allowing a fifth of this tract for waste land, which may not be probably fit for settlement, it would be capable of containing 2300 families, giving to each family 100 acres.

'Gloucester.—A line of road from Teague's Brook would pass through a fine rich tract of country; and if surveyed, would be speedily occupied. . . .

'The lands extending south from the Innishanon, and the south branch of Caraquet to the Poemouche River, are of a superior quality; and I think, if a portion of them were surveyed, would soon be occupied. The road leading from Smith's on the Innishanon to the bay shore, passes through a good tract of land, and if surveyed would readily be occupied.

'Sunbury.—The roads here recommended would be through land generally very level, not intersected with large streams requiring expensive bridges, and pass through many good tracts of land for agricultural purposes, which, with its proximity to Frederickton, and other local advantages, surrounded on three sides by mills and manufacturing establishments, and no part of it more than ten miles from an old settlement, affords a field for improvement seldom equalled in other parts of the province.

'A road opened from the north-west branch of Oromocto River to the Cork Settlement, would be of great benefit to both settlements, by opening a communication between them through much good land fit for cultivation. It has proved a great drawback on the benefit of emigration to this province, that most of the capitalists among the emigrants, if they were only able to purchase a pedlar's pack, have preferred speculation to agriculture; and while the farmers could only afford £2 per month, the lumberers would give £4 to migratory labourers—thus sending the specie out of the province, and fixing the rate of wages far above its real value.

'Restigouche.—Notices of various lines for roads, which would open up "very valuable tracts of land."

'Queen's County.—As for the question in a general way, whether the land will pay for the making of the roads, I think admits of no doubt. There are two instances of it paying the government well in this county: I mean the Nerepis Road—great road between Frederickton and St John, for one. How quick were settlements

made after this road got into operation, which neither could nor would have been the case if no such roads had not first been made ! The other instance is more recent—namely, the road on the county line between this county and Sunbury, extending from the River St John to the Nerepis Great Road, through the Victoria Settlement. I think I am very safe in saying there would not have been 100 acres taken up, at least in this county, if that road had not been previously made. Now there are several settlers there who have bought and paid the whole amount for their land, and applications monthly for more in each county ; for instance, this present month there are 600 acres in this county, and 500 in Sunbury, advertised for sale next month—the applicants in both counties being respectable farmers' sons, the most of whom will pay the whole amount down.

'I would recommend that the front land on the south-east side of Salmon River, to the mouth of the Little Forks, be surveyed for settlement. This land would soon be occupied, and a survey would prevent squatters from improving on land so irregularly.

'There is also an excellent tract of land situate between Salmon River and Coal Creek, extending up stream about twenty miles, which, I think, if surveyed, would soon be occupied, and also prevent squatters from settling irregularly, as they now are.

'*Kent (Richibucto).*—There are no remote settlements of any note in my district, the settlers confining themselves chiefly to the banks of the different rivers and their tributaries. The greatest obstacle which prevents parties from going farther up the country to settle is the want of roads to encourage them to do so. (Seven lines for roads mentioned leading through good land.)

'*Northumberland.*—There is an excellent tract of land in rear of the granted lands from Burnt Church to Neguac, extended back towards Stymist's Mill Stream, and easterly to the granted land on the west side of Tabusintack River. There is also a good tract of land on the north side of Little Tracadie River, above the head of the tide, extending upwards, and back towards Pocmouche River. There is also an extensive tract of good land between Pocmouche River and the south branch of Caraquet River, extending from the upper settlement on Caraquet River, I think, to the Bathurst Road ; and if a road were opened from the upper settlement on the south branch of Caraquet to the Bathurst Road, about eleven miles south of Bathurst, it would pass through a fine tract of hardwood land. The whole distance would be about twenty-four miles ; and I am not aware of any bridges, except small ones, that would be required in the whole distance.

'*Charlotte.*—There are several extensive tracts of good land in this county, if through which roads were opened, would soon be settled upon ; and I believe that it is for want of roads that they have not been settled upon before this time. However, the people in this county do not seem to be much inclined to settle upon new lands (witness the few sales of crown-lands which have taken place

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in this county for the last two years); and where they have settled, they do not improve very fast.

'The extensive trade in cedar-shingles which is carried on at St Stephen's and Calais has very much injured the settlement of the surrounding country. The merchants and traders there encourage the settlers to manufacture these shingles, for which they generally pay them in goods and provisions. This is apparently an advantage to the settler, as it would seem to be an easy means of providing provisions for the first year; but in the end it is ruinous to his farming interests, as the merchant generally manages to get the settler into his debt; so that he (the settler) is obliged to continue the manufacture, to keep his credit good, even at times when he ought to be either sowing or securing his crops, and leaving him but very little time to clear and improve his farm.

'This trade has also caused the crown-lands within twenty-five or thirty miles of St Stephen's to be all pillaged of the very fine cedar-timber it contained, thereby rendering it of much less value when purchased for actual settlement.

'There is one tract of land which I wish particularly to bring under your notice; it is situated to the north and west of Canoose River, and is bounded on the north and west by the River St Croix; it contains a large quantity of good land, enough to form a parish of itself. There is a new settlement on the Canoose River on the continuation of the Oak Hill Road, and a bridge was built over the stream at this place last summer; and should this road be continued on northerly along the east side of Captain Spearman's grant, and then in nearly a direct line to the Little Falls on the St Croix River, below Porter's Meadows, where a bridge could be constructed at a small expense across the river, it would in that distance pass through large tracts of good land; and all the travelling from St Stephen and Calais to the Great Lakes, and to the settlements on the American townships on the opposite side of the river, would pass along it: it would be a complete thoroughfare. And after it would be opened, then branch-roads to the good land east and west of it could be made, and a connection made with the Woodstock Road; then the whole tract would be settled.'

In the papers relative to emigration to North America, laid before parliament in 1849, a statistical return of one of the newest settlements—the Harvey Settlement—is printed. The settlement is situated twenty-four miles from the town of Fredericton, on the great road to St Andrews. The colonists were a body of Northumbrians. The return is so old as the year 1845, but the importance apparently attached to its publication in this country, in the following passage in the letter in which it is transmitted by the district commissioner to Governor Colebrooke, induces us to present a portion of the general result to the reader:—

'It is desirable that the accompanying return may be circulated among the settlers' friends and countrymen in the north of England,

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as well as in other parts of the United Kingdom, so that the capabilities of our new land-soil may appear, and that it may also be made known that we have at least 5,000,000 acres yet undisposed of—a great portion of which is of better quality than the land at Harvey, whereon the sober and industrious emigrant may create a home under the protection of British laws, and in the enjoyment of British institutions.'

The return refers to a tract on which it is stated that 'not a tree had been felled in July 1837.'

Names.	Acres in Crop 1843.	Acres new Land for Crop next Year.	Estimated Value of Land and Improvements.
William Embleton,	6	3	£60 0 0
James Mowatt,	8	4	100 0 0
William Messer,	0	0	
Thomas Herbert,	14	8	155 0 0
William Grieve,	0	0	
John Cookburn,	16	10	180 0 0
David Letford,	6½	5	118 0 0
John Thomson,	6½	4	100 0 0
Robert Wilson,	15	10	165 0 0
Henry Craige,	11½	5½	150 0 0
William Bell,	6	5	130 0 0
Thomas Mowatt,	8	4	92 0 0
James Wishet,	5	1½	150 0 0
Alexander Hay,	10	4	100 0 0
Andrew Montgomery,	6½	2	150 0 0
Matthew Percy,	11	5	135 0 0
James Corne,	9	5	125 0 0
Thomas Kay,	6½	3	73 0 0
George Davidson,	4	3	75 10 0
John Scott,	5	2	90 10 0
Thomas Percy,	8	4	180 10 0
John Carmichael,	6	2	92 0 0
John Wightman,	7	3	135 0 0
John Nesbitt,	10	5	130 0 0
Robert Tait,	10	3	70 0 0
William Patterson,	10	4	120 0 0
William Robison,	10	6	130 0 0
	219½	111	£3007 10 0

These settlers collectively produced 115 tons of hay; 91½ tons of straw; 6955 bushels of potatoes; 270 bushels of wheat; 2920 bushels of oats; 504 bushels of barley and buckwheat; and 160 bushels of turnips. They possessed 41 cows, 19 oxen, 9 horses, 59 sheep, 97 swine, and 40 young cattle. Of buildings they had 28 dwelling-houses, 26 barns, and 47 other outhouses.

A similar return is given for the 'Teetotal Settlement,' which, 'but two years ago, stood a dense forest.' The general results may be stated, in this instance, to aid the result of the above in developing the progress of a small body of associated settlers. The number, not of heads of families merely, but of human beings, was 101. Houses, 33; acres cleared, 177; acres cropped, 127. Produce in bushels—potatoes, 5700; turnips, 464; oats, 980; wheat,

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95; other grain, 37. Of live animals there were—cows, 11; horses, 3; pigs, 29. The estimated value of the improvements, not including the purchase-money from government of the waste land, was £1137. To 33 houses and 101 inhabitants we cannot allot more than 40 able-bodied men; and by such a number this little fortune—a fixed capital, independently of the value of the produce—was created in the space of two years.

On the 31st of March 1849, the lieutenant-governor, Sir E. Head, writing to the secretary for the colonies, and drawing his attention to the capabilities of the colony for industrial allottees, said:—

‘Of all the colonies of England which present any field for settlement, New Brunswick is accessible at the cheapest rate. Its climate is rigorous, but perfectly healthy: no emigrant brought here with his family could complain on that score. The sum required to take a man with his wife and two children to Australia would far more than defray his passage hither, and give him a fair start on his own resources, with a log-hut and a crop in the ground. I am supposing that by an arrangement, which, in connection with a railway, could be made on a large scale, a certain number of rough log-huts were built, and a certain number of patches of ground tilled and planted in the spring before the emigrant arrived, so that he might derive from the crop thus raised the means of living through the first winter.

‘Fuel is at his door; and although hard work and hard fare would be his lot, it is evident that if he were thus able to wait for the commencement of railway work in the following year, he would have a clear course before him. The annexed memorandum contains a rough estimate of the probable cost of making the preparations necessary for receiving and housing an emigrant family in the first winter.

‘All this, however, would require great care. The men must be *bond fide* able-bodied labourers; they must not be burthened with excessive families, or with aged or sickly relatives; and they must be selected by some person strictly responsible for their fitness. Without these precautions, the scheme would inevitably fail, and would be unjust to the colony as well as to the men themselves.’

The memorandum enclosed in this document may be of use to industrial proposing settlers with small means.

‘Average produce of an acre of potatoes, first year of clearing, planted amongst the stumps?—The land being good, well cleared, and cropped, 200 bushels might be looked for.

‘Average cost of clearing half an acre, burning the rough wood, and fitting the land for planting?—Good hardwood land would take ten or eleven days to prepare it for crop; and if done by the job, would cost from £3, 10s. 10d. to £3, 15s. per acre.

‘Quantity of seed for half an acre of potatoes?—The seed being

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carefully planted, ten bushels would be required, at say 2s. 1d. per bushel.

'Rate per day of labour if hired?—In a short period, 3s. 4d. without board; and 2s. 3½d. with board.

'Average cost of rough log-hut?—A log-hut 18 feet by 12, shingled, but without chimney or flooring, would cost £8, 6s. 8d., including two windows and one door; a hut of the same dimensions, with chimney, double-flooring and ceiling, with a cellar, would probably cost £15 or £16, 13s. 4d.'

Labour.—It is well that it should be at once understood that New Brunswick is not at present a good emigration field for the mechanic or the mere labourer, who has nothing but his work to give. There is, of course, employment for the workman—especially in the staple produce of the country—lumbering, or timber-cutting, but it seems to be pretty fully supplied. If it were not, it is not one to induce aspiring men of the better class of skilled labourers to follow it. The work is hard. It is of a kind that necessarily demands a lifetime of seclusion in the lonely forest. For its chief characteristics, reference may be made to page 37. In their circular for 1851 they give a rather better account, announcing that 'the immigration agent stated, in a letter dated 10th March 1851, that the demand for unskilled labour was on the increase, and that a moderate number of ordinary labourers and farm-servants might find employment at fair wages in 1851.'

With regard to other labourers, they appear to be already sufficiently abundant in the colony. It is not a place where great capitalists who can give much employment go. It has been chiefly colonised by capitalist-workers; men of small means, who clear and labour in their settlements—and it is to this class only that it is at present suitable. Mr Johnston found an impression there, that if a man had from £50 to £100, with industrious habits and common sense and caution, he was sure to get on; and the province was thought much more suitable to this class than to men of large means. He mentions many well-to-do Lowland Scotsmen of this class; but he does not give so good an account of the success of the Irish and Highlanders. The government agent calculated that nine-tenths of those who landed in New Brunswick in the year 1849, passed into the United States, led by the better encouragement for labour. The Emigration Commissioners reported, in 1850, that though there had been a good harvest, and other matters had been on the whole encouraging to the settlers, the demand for farm-labourers was likely to be very limited, 'if any,' 'while for ordinary or skilled labour,' the resident population was reported to be 'quite sufficient.'

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The observations of practical men who have been connected with enterprise on the spot, confirm the notion, however, that New Brunswick will not be for some time a field for the absorption of much labour. There are always two opposite views of labour or its reward in emigration fields, and perhaps elsewhere. The employer looks to a sum as the amount at which it should be obtained; and when he cannot obtain it at that rate, is censorious, discontented, almost fierce. The labourer, who has taken the trouble of emigrating, calculates on a golden reward for his services, and is mortified and discontented with the employer who cannot afford to give it. Thus what the one party talks of as prosperity, will not be viewed by the other in the same light. Mr Perley, the government emigration agent, was examined before the House of Lords' Committee on Emigration in 1847. He was desired to mention an instance of a raw emigrant rising by his labour and prudence. He mentioned one which he seemed to consider rather an eminent instance; but though it came to a satisfactory conclusion, the beginning was not what would be an inducement to any but the humblest of the working-classes in this country—and in good times hardly to them.

‘Can you give any instances within your own knowledge of the progress of an unskilled labourer upon his arrival to the condition of a skilled labourer receiving higher wages, till he reaches the point of having the means of acquiring land, and becoming a landowner?—I can mention one case. I sent a young man to a first-rate farmer in the country, who wrote to me for an active young man. Was the emigrant an Irishman?—From the county of Cork; the son of a small farmer in that county. He brought me a letter of introduction, stating that he was of a decent family. I sent him up to a first-rate farmer, who gave him 30s. currency per month, with which he was not well satisfied; that is equal to 25s. sterling. He had his maintenance, and washing and lodging, in the farmer's house. He proved himself so active and useful, that in the second month his wages were advanced. Before the close of the season, and the setting in of winter, he had learned the use of the axe very well, and was engaged by a lumbering party in the woods at £5 per month.—Feeding himself?—No; they found him everything in the woods except clothing. He proved himself so good an axeman, that at the end of the year, when the men came down with the timber, and he was paid off, he brought to me a sum of £30 currency, and wanted to know what he should do with his earnings. I advised him to buy 100 acres of land, which would cost him £12 currency; to put the other £18 in the Savings' Bank, and hire out another year, and by that time he would be in a position to establish himself comfortably as a farmer.—In stating that case, do you state it as a remarkable case, or as a case frequently occurring, or as at all ordinarily occurring in the province?—I have known within the last three or four years several

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such cases. This probably is a strong one ; but I have known many cases where emigrants have gone on nearly as successfully as that, and have had £20 at the end of the first year.'

The labour-market being in the meantime of the limited kind which we have mentioned, it does not follow that the opportunities for enlarging it are limited, and that it will always remain thus bounded. There is great room for enterprise in this colony ; it may some day make a great start onward. It is believed that the road-making operations, elsewhere alluded to, will be of great advantage—on the one hand, new emigrants will be occupied ; on the other, good places of settlement will be made more accessible. The contemplated railway operations would tend still more to infuse spirit and enterprise into the district. Mr Perley stated to the Lords' Committee of 1847, that 'the impression in New Brunswick is, that for every emigrant labourer who may be employed upon the railway itself, four other emigrant labourers would find employment throughout the province in other works which would spring up in consequence of the construction of the railway—such as the establishment of new settlements ; the founding of towns ; the establishment of foundries, forges, and furnaces ; the erection of mills ; the making of roads ; construction of bridges ; and in an infinity of other ways.'

On the occasions where active operations have been carried on, a stream of labour, which may be said to pass through this colony to the United States, becomes partially arrested. This was the case in 1846, when a more than usual number of working-men remained in New Brunswick. The gentleman just quoted thus accounts for the phenomenon : 'I can explain that. Last year there were large grants from the provincial legislature for the road service—about £40,000. Shipbuilding also was in a very flourishing condition. We built a large amount of ships in the province last year ; nearly double what had been built in previous seasons. A number of new steam saw-mills were also erected ; and in St John, what gave employment more than anything else was, that a gas-light company and a water company were each laying down pipes for gas and water in the city of St John. All these circumstances combined gave employment, at good wages, to a certain extent.'

Emigration.—From the limited employment, emigration to this colony has never been great, and is rather decreasing. The number who landed in 1850 was 1507. In 1849 the arrivals were 2671, being less than those of the previous year by so much as 1470 ; and it was the opinion of the emigration agent, that of the reduced number nine-tenths had passed on to the United States. The immigration of 1848—4020 persons—was

a decrease on that of 1847—the great year of misery and helter-skelter emigration—of 11,249; and was a decrease on the more moderate year, 1846, of 5745. The number in that year was 9765, of whom about 4500 are supposed to have passed over to the United States, leaving, however, an increase to the New Brunswick population of more than 5000.

Along with the other North American colonies, New Brunswick suffered considerably from the wretched cargoes of emigrants fleeing from the Irish famine and all the miseries of 1847. Not only were helplessness and starvation unshipped upon the island, appealing clamorously for relief and the saving of life, but contagious diseases of an appalling kind were imported in these miserable vessels, which communicated themselves around, and especially among those who benevolently attempted to mitigate the miseries of the helpless strangers. A better notion could not be formed of the nature of the sufferings to be mitigated, and of the sacrifices made by the colony, than the perusal of an act of the colony, passed in 1848, 'to provide for the expenses incurred in the support, relief, and maintenance of indigent, sick, and distressed emigrants and orphans who arrived in this province during the past year.' The items shew that the colonists near whose the living cargoes were unshipped had to make great pecuniary sacrifices to save the lives laid down at their doors.

To protect themselves from so costly and dangerous an inundation, the colony passed an act in 1848 to increase the tax on immigrants—making it 10s. a head between 1st April and 1st September; 15s. between 1st September and 1st October; and £1 from that time to 1st April. If the vessel required to go into quarantine for the health of the passengers, an addition of 5s. a head was incurred; and if it required to remain in quarantine more than ten days, a further sum of 5s. In reference to this enactment, which of course pressed heavily on the emigration to the colony—£300 or £400 requiring sometimes to be paid for one vessel—the lieutenant-governor, Sir Edward Head, wrote to the secretary for the colonies in April 1849, that 'there never was a more striking example of the fact, that incautious and ill-regulated emigration does more than anything else to throw impediments in the way of that which may be properly conducted.'

Better symptoms were, however, observable in 1849, the number of emigrants being much reduced, and the health and general condition improved. In 1850, an act was passed reducing the fees or taxes by precisely one-half. The tax came, then, to be as follows: Emigrants arriving between the 1st April and 1st September will now pay 5s.; between 1st September and 1st October, 7s. 6d.; between 1st October and 1st April, 10s.; and vessels placed in

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quarantine will pay, in the first instance, 2s. 6d. a head; and if detained more than ten days, an additional 2s. 6d. a head.

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.

THE old province of Nova Scotia is between the 43d and 46th degrees of latitude, and the 61st and 67th degrees of west longitude. It is about 320 miles long, with an average breadth of 70 miles, and is computed to contain 7,000,000 acres of dry land, 2,000,000 of which are barren, and incapable of cultivation. The stormy island of Cape Breton, separated from it by a strait which in some places is not above a mile wide, is supposed to contain about 500,000 acres of land capable of cultivation. The coasts are wild, rocky, and deeply indented; but the province is not strictly mountainous, the greatest elevation not rising above 700 feet above the level of the sea. 'Granite and calcareous rocks, with gray and red sandstone, prevail in the northern parts of Nova Scotia, from the Gut of Canseau to the Bay de Vert, and extend across the province to the Bay of Minas, if not interrupted by a granite ridge, which may very probably occur in the Mount Tom range of Highlands. The hard gray or bluish sandstone which occurs in various parts of the province makes excellent grindstones; the light gray granite quarried at Whitehead, near Cape Canseau, makes remarkably good millstones; and a beautiful freestone, most admirably adapted for building, is abundant in several places, particularly at Port Wallace.'—(*Appendices to Macgregor's Commercial Reports*, Part xxiii. p. 530.) In the same authority it is stated that 'the geology and mineralogy of Cape Breton can only be said to be known in outline. From all that we have observed, however, and from all the information we have been able to obtain, it may be remarked that almost all the rocks named in the discordant nomenclature of Werner are found in this island. Among the primitive rocks, granite prevails in the peninsular country south-east of the Bras d'Or, and it possibly forms the nucleus of the Highlands between this inlet and the Gulf of St Lawrence. Sienite, trap, mica, clay-slate, and occasionally quartz, also appear in the Gulf coast. Primitive trap, sienite, mica-slate, and clay-slate, shew themselves, together with transition limestone, grauwacke, gypsum, and coal, generally in all parts of this island.'—(P. 532.) Minerals of the agate and jasper kind are found along the coast, as throughout the greater part of North America. But

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what is of chief moment to note in their geology, is the abundance of coal spread over the greater part of both districts. There are large strata of ironstone; copper and lead have been met with; and it is believed that when an opportunity occurs for adapting their resources to use, these territories will be found rich in minerals.

Few countries are so well situated for the exportation of their productions. There are several navigable rivers, with fertile banks, the largest being the Shubenacadie and the Clyde; and with these, and the indentations of the coast, there is no part of the interior above thirty miles from navigation. A great part of the country is covered with dense forest, the effect of which is to keep the otherwise rich alluvial soil on which it stands in a continual state of coldness and dampness, from the shade, the thick unaired coating of dead leaves, and the quantity of rain thus attracted. The contrasts of season exhibited in North America generally are peculiarly violent here, in the length and acerbity of the winter, and the heat of summer. There is some stony and worthless land, but much of it is highly available; and when settlement and cultivation make progress, the disappearance of the forest will bring greater equality and salubrity to the climate. The lands are generally divided into three kinds—upland, intervale, and marsh. The first kind, generally near the river heads, is sometimes a stiff clay; but it is varied by a friable and productive loam. The intervale land consists of a rich alluvium, and is of a similar character to that known by the same name in New Brunswick. The marsh is sometimes diked like that already mentioned in New Brunswick.

Mr Johnston, who saw but a small portion of Nova Scotia, but who noted well what he saw, confirms the previous accounts of the soil of the province, dividing it, like his predecessors, into three classes. He was of opinion that the wild broken coast-line gave ordinary travellers a fallacious notion of the interior, being 'as naked and inhospitable as an inhabited country can well be.' Nor would the interior in the immediate neighbourhood of the capital of the province convey a more promising impression; for he tells us that there, 'in some places, boulders of various sizes are scattered sparsely over the surface; in others they literally cover the land; while in rarer spots they are heaped upon each other, as if intentionally accumulated for some after-use.' 'One ought,' he continues, 'to visit a country like this, while new to the plough, in order to understand what must have been the original condition of much of the land in our own country, which the successive labours of many generations have now smoothed and levelled.' Passing across the neck of land between Halifax and the Bay of Minas, Mr Johnston was evidently struck by the aridity of the country—it happened to be a very dry season—until he

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came to the dike-land. 'This land,' he says, 'sells at present at from £15 to £40 sterling per acre; and some of it has been tilled for 150 years without any manure—a treatment, however, of which it is now beginning seriously to complain. It averages 300 bushels (nine tons), and sometimes produces 600 bushels (eighteen tons) of potatoes to the acre.' Of the intervale land Mr Johnston says, that with farm buildings it 'is rarely valued so high as £20 an acre.'

The chief productions are of course grain and live-stock. The timber, though so abundant, is of an inferior quality, and does not compete with that of Canada and New Brunswick. There are, unfortunately, but scanty statistics of a recent date as to Nova Scotia and Cape Breton. In 1827 there was an enumeration of the cultivated land and its produce. The acreage was 274,501, on which grew 161,416 bushels of wheat, 799,665 bushels of other grain, 2,434,766 tons of potatoes, and 150,976 tons of hay. The live-stock were 13,232 horses, 100,739 horned cattle, 152,978 sheep, and 75,772 swine. The amount of agricultural produce must have greatly increased since this estimate was made, with the exception probably of potatoes, the cultivation of which was in a great measure abandoned after the ravages of the disease. By returns to parliament in 1850, the quinquennial value of the exports of the colony was calculated at £661,581. But it appears that while the amount in 1847 had risen to £831,071, it had fallen in 1849 to £560,947. The quinquennial average of shipping inwards was 476,207 tons; of shipping outwards, 435,643 tons. It is calculated that the projected railway from Halifax to Quebec would render accessible 1,080,000 acres of ungranted land in this colony.

It does not appear that much land has lately been acquired in the colony, and the Emigration Commissioners have not of late reported any sales. In 1845 there were sold in Nova Scotia 21,921 acres, bringing £2028, 18s.; and in Cape Breton, 17,700½ acres, realising £1669, 13s. The terms on which lands may be acquired here are very easy. A local act was passed, enabling the governor and council to fix any rate not less than 1s. 9d. an acre; but there are ample provisions for relaxing this rule in favour of persons urging any claim for occupancy and improvement. From the excellent means of communication in the great harbour of Halifax and otherwise, it is believed that for a small capitalist contented with the climate this would be an eligible emigration field. With regard to labour, though wages have been hitherto good, and provisions cheap, yet the Emigration Commissioners announce that here, as in New Brunswick, there is but a limited demand for workmen. In 1847 the governor represented to the

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home government that it would not be desirable to encourage the emigration of workmen to the province.

The population of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton is estimated at 300,000. That of Nova Scotia separately was, in 1837, 199,206. The people are of a mixed race. Many of the original French settlers or Acadians still exist, especially in Cape Breton. They much resemble in their character and habits the Habitans of Canada. There is a mixed dark race, the descendants of refugee slaves. Several of the descendants of American loyalists hold lands in the province. There are many Highland emigrants; and, unfortunately for the progress of the colony, they are apt to keep together in communities, as in Canada. Pictou, a territory penetrated by a beautiful harbour, has 30,000 inhabitants, the greater part of whom are Highlanders. Few emigrants have lately gone to the province. It suffered along with the other North American colonies by the pauper-emigration of 1847, at a time when, owing to considerable internal depression, it was little suited to receive such an addition to its population. An act was passed, as in the other colonies, for taxing emigrants, which rapidly reduced the number. They were, in 1847, 2000; and in 1848, 140. The number who embarked in the year following was 298.

There are several towns in Nova Scotia, the principle of which is the fine city of Halifax, a place of great importance to trade. It contains eight good streets, with a very remarkable mass of government buildings, called the Province Building; many handsome private residences built of stone and plastered wood; and large commodious wharfs for its extensive shipping and merchandise. It contains about 25,000 inhabitants. Its trade is extensive, but its mercantile classes, probably from their being chiefly of Scottish origin, are celebrated for their prudence and the paucity of bankrupts among them. The trade of the town derives its importance in a great measure from its being an entrepôt between Britain and America. It is generally the first American port touched by the vessels crossing the Atlantic, and affords the emigrant the earliest glimpse of American scenery. Many transatlantic tourists speak of Halifax, from having had occasion to land there on their way to Canada or the United States, but few travellers have recorded their opinions of the other parts of Nova Scotia. In general, the notices of Halifax have been very promising, both as to the health and comfort of the inhabitants of the province. Mr Johnston, the latest traveller who gives us his impression of the capital, emphatically says: 'A European stranger who, on landing in Halifax, looks for the sallow visage and careworn expression which distinguish so many of the inhabitants of the northern states of the Union, will be pleased to see the fresh

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and blooming complexions of the females of all classes, and, I may say, of almost all ages. Youth flourishes longer here, and we scarcely observe, in stepping from England to Nova Scotia, that we have yet reached a climate which bears heavier upon young looks and female beauty than our own.'—(*Notes on North America*, i. 3.) The importance of Halifax will be greatly enlarged when the projected railway to Quebec is carried through. Many of the emigrants, not only to the Canadas but to the Western States of the Union, will then disembark at Halifax.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

THIS island, in the Gulf of St Lawrence, lies between 46° and 47° 10" of north latitude. Its length, pursuing a course corresponding with its winding shape, is 140 miles, and its breadth about 34 miles. It is deeply indented with creeks, like the west coast of Scotland, so that no part of it is far distant from the sea. It is not mountainous, but has some gentle elevations; and the surface is described as a peculiarly pleasant diversity of gentle rising-grounds, forests, meadows, and water. This was one of the colonies originally belonging to France, and the foundation of the population is French. Many Highlanders have been settled there under the auspices of Lord Selkirk; but they have been too closely associated together, and their position is therefore too like that which they held in their own country. The population amounts now to about 68,000; it did not much exceed 6000 at the commencement of the century. The capital and seat of government is Charlottetown, with about 3500 inhabitants; it is neatly built and agreeably situated.

In 1848 the lands held in Prince Edward Island amounted to the following:—In absolute property or fee-simple, 280,649 acres; under lease, 330,926 acres; by verbal agreement, 38,783 acres; occupants not freeholders or tenants, being, it may be presumed, of the nature of squatters, held 65,434 acres; and 31,312 are set down as 'by written demises.' The acres of arable land were 215,389, exceeding by 73,809 the amount of arable land in 1840. In Mr Macgregor's Appendices to the Commercial Reports, presented to parliament in 1850, where the particulars from which the above general statement is taken are set forth at length, there is also an account of the crop of the preceding year. It consisted of—wheat, 219,787 (an increase of 66,328 over the same crop in

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1840); barley, 75,521 bushels; oats, 746,383 bushels; potatoes, 731,575 bushels (a great decrease from the amount of 1840, which was 2,230,114 bushels); turnips, 153,933 bushels; clover-seed, 14,900 bushels; and hay, 45,128 tons.

There has been little emigration to this island in late years. In 1849 there arrived eighty-four new settlers, chiefly sent thither by the Duke of Sutherland. The quantity of land sold in the same year was 79½ acres, realising £99, 15s. The price of land in this island had been for some time extravagantly high—wilderness land at an upset price of 20s. an acre, and ‘town, pasture, and river lots at from £10 to £30 per acre.’ A reduction of 10 per cent. took place in 1837. In 1848 an arrangement of an unfortunately complex kind was adopted, the result of which appears to be, that 7000 acres were offered at 5s. an acre; 2540 at 10s.; and pasture lots, of eight acres each, at £5 per lot. These are all upset prices.

The Emigration Commissioners join this island with Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, as a place where much additional labour is not required. It is understood, however, that the settlement would be a suitable one for small capitalists, by whom it could be made very productive in grain.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND lies between 46° 40' and 51° 37' north, and covers a vast triangular area, forming a sort of barrier across the greater part of the mouth of the Gulf of St Lawrence. It is the part of America nearest to Europe. Though an island, and in the centre of the ocean traffic with North America, little was known of its interior character until, in 1822, it was penetrated at great risk, and with much exertion, by Mr Cormack, an adventurous traveller. The impediments which he encountered from the lakes, rivers, and vast impenetrable marshes, shewed the source of its proverbial fogs and damp winds. The geological formation was chiefly primitive, but indications were seen of iron and coal. The wild animals of the north were found to abound. The island has forests of timber, but they are not in great abundance. It is not believed that much good arable land, fit for grain, will ever be found in Newfoundland, but it is thought that its grazing capacities may be considerable. This colony is mentioned on the present occasion rather to satisfy the curiosity of those who may wish to know whether it resembles the other North American territories, than for the sake of recon-

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mending it as an emigration field. It has scarcely been used for the ordinary purposes of emigration and settlement, the agriculture of the country being merely raised to feed its shipping population. In general the soil is covered with a thick coating of moss, rendering its cultivation laborious. While the population is about 100,000, the quantity of land under crop in 1845 amounted only to 29,654 acres. No hay appears to have been produced; but there were, of oats, 11,695 bushels, and of potatoes, 341,165. There were in the island 2409 horses, 8135 horned cattle, 5750 sheep, and 5791 goats. With regard to labourers not agricultural, the settlement is in much the same position as the neighbouring colonies. There is work in proportion to the extent of the community, and it is well rewarded; but there is no room for a large importation of workmen. The great occupation of the place is fishing, and the operations connected with the curing and preservation of the fish. The neighbouring Bank of Newfoundland—the largest submerged island in the world, being 600 miles long, and in some places 200 broad—is the great fishing-ground for cod, ling, and the smaller fish. Whale and seal fishing are largely carried on. The value of the dried cod annually exported is £500,000, and that of the other produce of the fishery—oil, seal-skin, herrings, &c.—is about the same, making an export on the whole of nearly a million in value. The Emigration Commissioners, in their circular for 1851, say:

‘There exists no official return of the surveyed and accessible land at the disposal of the crown in this colony. The area has been estimated at about 2,300,000 acres, of which about 23,000 have been appropriated. By a colonial law, crown-lands are to be sold by auction at an upset price, to be fixed by the governor, at not less than 2s. per acre. Land exposed to auction more than once on different days may afterwards be sold, without further competition, at the last upset price. Although the agriculture of the province is progressively increasing, there are yet comparatively few persons exclusively employed in it, the population being nearly all engaged in the fisheries.’

THE NORTH-WEST TERRITORY AND VANCOUVER'S ISLAND.

THE boundaries of the British American possessions, with the United States and Russian America, have already been referred to. The former is very vague in its character as it passes

westward, and may involve unpleasant discussions hereafter. Setting apart, however, the several settlements already considered—the Canadas, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland—the remainder of the vast territory consists of the possessions of the Hudson's Bay Company, and the great North-west Territory. The boundaries of the company's territories are not very distinctly laid down, but they are understood to commence towards the east with the table-land in Labrador, which separates the waters flowing into Hudson's Bay from those flowing into the St Lawrence and its gulf, and to be bounded westward by the Rocky Mountains. In these directions there will probably be little occasion precisely to fix the bounds; but as the company nominally hold by their charter the country watered by all the rivers running into Hudson's Bay, their nominal boundaries include territories actually within the United States.

This vast northern region exhibits great varieties of soil, scenery, and climate. A large part of it is flat and marshy, while the Rocky Mountains rise in granitic peaks to from 10,000 to 16,000 feet in height. The more northern portion is partly covered with stone and arid detritus, and contains more marsh, river, and lake, than any other part of the world. In these desolate regions there is but a brief summer and a long dreary winter, which requires the servants of the Hudson's Bay Company to exercise the utmost caution to avoid intense hardship, accompanied with danger. In some of their posts and factories, even when there is fire in the room, brandy freezes, and the walls are covered with glittering ice from the breath of the inmates! A more comfortless life than these hardy adventurers lead it were difficult to imagine. 'The soil at Churchill Fort (one of the Hudson's Bay Company's stations, in latitude 59° north), on the shores of the bay, is extremely barren, rocky, dry, and without wood for several miles inland; a few garden vegetables are with difficulty reared. At York Fort, in latitude $57^{\circ} 2'$, longitude 93° west, the soil is low and marshy, and equally unproductive; and though the trees are larger than those inland of Fort Churchill, they are equally knotty and dwarfish. The country around the factory, although elevated above the river, is one entire swamp, covered with low, stunted pine, and perfectly impenetrable, even in July, when it is infested with clouds of mosquitoes. The land seems to have been thrown up by the sea, and is never thawed, during the hottest summer, with the thermometer at 90° to 100° in the shade, more than ten or twelve inches, and then the soil is of the consistence of clammy mud: even in the centre of the factory it is necessary to keep on the platforms to avoid sinking over the ankles.'—(*Martin's Hudson's Bay Territories and Vancouver's Island*, 10.)

On the other hand, in the districts bordering on the United States, and which may yet be the object of unfortunate disputes, there are fruitful territories of unknown extent and resources. Mr Macgregor says: 'A greater portion of the region lying south of Lake Athabasca, and [of that] west of the Stony Mountains, is eminently adapted for agriculture; and its splendid forests and broad savannas abound with buffalo, moose, caraboo, common deer, and most, if not all, the wild animals and birds; in the lakes and rivers great varieties of fish are plentiful. This remote territory possesses resources capable of yielding sustenance and independence to many millions of inhabitants; but hitherto the soil has in no part been subjected to cultivation, except in small spots where the fur-traders have established posts; and on the banks of the Red River Lord Selkirk established a settlement.'—(*Appendices to Commercial Reports*, Part xxiii. p. 467.)

However great may be the resources of this territory, they are not, with the exceptions to be after noticed, of great importance to our present purpose, which is to deal with existing practical emigration fields, however momentous they may be to our descendants. There is one species of emigration which, it is true, is open here on a considerable scale—service with the Hudson's Bay Company. That is, however, altogether a life so peculiar that no inhabitants of Britain will be likely to adopt it but those who, from peculiar circumstances, have been led through a wild adventurous career. It is not by any means a popular service, and has been the object of various complaints, whether well founded or not. The Hudson's Bay Company were lately called on to set forth publicly the extent of their privileges, and the amount of territory over which they professed to exercise them; and the papers on the subject were laid before parliament in the session of 1850. The company founded on their charter from Charles II. in 1670, defining their territory as 'all those seas, straits, bays, rivers, lakes, creeks, and sounds, in whatsoever latitude they shall be, that lie within the entrance of the straits commonly called Hudson's Straits; together with all the lands and territories upon the countries, coasts, and confines of the seas, bays, lakes, rivers, creeks, and sounds aforesaid, that are not already actually possessed by or granted to any of our subjects, or possessed by the subjects of any other Christian prince or state.'

They presented a map of their territory, in which it appeared, from the 90th degree of longitude westward, to be bounded on the south by the United States, while the Canadas bounded it elsewhere to the south and east. Northward, it was represented as stretching almost indefinitely among the partly-known peninsulas and islands at the entrance of Hudson's Bay and Strait. To the

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west, its southern extremity extended to the 115th degree of longitude among the Rocky Mountains, whence the boundary kept eastward for above 10 degrees.

The rights claimed over this district were absolute, both as to property and sovereignty. By an act of 1803 (43 Geo. III. c. 138) the Canadian courts were invested with a jurisdiction in these territories coextensive with that of the company. Hitherto the company has acted pretty absolutely and irresponsibly on its powers, because it had no subjects within its territory but its own officers and servants responsible to their employers. But as colonisation proceeds, the question of such a sovereignty becomes a serious one. On the subject of taxation they said, in presenting their case to parliament: 'Until a colony of resident settlers was established other than the colony's own servants, the company defrayed the whole expenses of the government of their territories, without the aid of any contribution whatever; but since a colony was formed, it has been made a stipulation with the community, upon their becoming settlers and receiving parcels of land, that they should contribute towards the expenses of the government of the colony; but the main charge has continued to be borne by the company.' On the extent of the company's powers and privileges being questioned, the opinion of the law-officers of the crown was taken, and was given in their favour, subject to the right of any party to bring them under judicial discussion.

Red River Settlement.—In the year 1802, Lord Selkirk published his views on emigration; the main feature of which was, that care should be taken to prevent the Highlanders, who, by the progress of sheep-farming, had to leave Britain, from settling in the territory of aliens. To aid in accomplishing his object, he bargained for and obtained a grant of land from the Hudson's Bay Company. It appears to have been deemed of little consequence how extensive was the territory so conveyed. It received the name of Ossiniboia, and the boundary was described as commencing 'at a point in 52° 30' north, on the western shore of Lake Winnipeg; the line running also west to Lake Winipegosis, or Little Winnipeg; thence south to the Highlands, dividing the waters of the Missouri and Mississippi from those falling into Lake Winnipeg; thence by those Highlands to the source of the River La Plue, and down that river through the Lake of the Woods, and River Winnipeg, to the place of beginning.' The tract comprises upwards of 73,000,000 of acres; and, as Mr Macgregor observes, 'half of the territory at least, and certainly the better half, is within the boundary of the United States.'

On a small spot of this territory, very near the northern boundary of the United States, and as far west as the 97th degree, was

THE NORTH-WEST TERRITORY, &c.

formed, and still remains, the small lonely settlement of Red River, with about 6000 inhabitants. After having undergone many hardships, especially in the attacks of the North-West Company, the rivals of their patrons, the Hudson's Bay Company, the settlers are described as prosperous and happy. The bishop of Montreal, who visited the place in 1844, published a journal, in which he noted such facts as the following:—'There are 182 horses, 749 mares, 107 bulls, 2207 cows, 1580 calves, 1976 pigs, and 3569 sheep. . . . The soil, which is alluvial, is beyond example rich and productive. . . . There is an instance, I was assured, of a farm in which the owner, with comparatively slight labour in the preparatory processes, had taken a wheat crop out of the same land for eighteen successive years; never changing the crops, never manuring the land, and never suffering it to lie fallow; and that the crop was abundant to the last.' Virtually, no emigration has taken place to this community; yet one would think it a not unsuitable field. It is said that land is obtainable on liberal terms from the company. The settler is, to a certain extent, under their authority; they jealously guard their peculiar traffic—the fur-trade; and lay restrictions on some other occupations—on, for instance, dealing in ardent spirits. The colony is, to be sure, a very isolated one. If it have abundance of the necessaries of life, it has scarcely any means of exporting its surplus; and from the same circumstance all imported articles are dear. But it will not always be thus separated from the world; for its water-communication comes very near the upper waters of the Mississippi, and soon the western settlements will be approaching it.

Vancouver's Island, on the west coast, lies so closely into a bend of the coast, from which it is separated by a winding narrow strait, that its western exterior falls into the general outline of the continent. It lies between the 48th and 51st degrees of north latitude, and is about 290 miles long, with an average breadth of 50 miles. Little is yet known of its interior character, but it is seen to be abundantly timbered; producing pine, spruce, yew, red and white oak, ash, cedar, poplar, maple, and willow. Near the Hudson's Bay Company's factory at Camosack, in the northern end of the island, it is known that there is much valuable prairie land suitable both for grazing and cultivation. The mineral riches seem to be considerable, and especially coal of excellent quality has been found in abundance.

This discovery was a matter of material importance for our communications with western America, however much or little influence it may have on emigration. The quality of the coal was favourably reported on by Admiral Sir George Seymour in

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1847, and it was compared to the better kind of Scotch coal. The Indians were at first jealous of the intentions of the strangers, and charged them with a design 'to steal' the coals; but when value was given for the mineral, they brought it readily, and sold in one lot 90 tons at about 4s. 6d. per ton. It was scraped up with hatchets, and other imperfect tools. The existence of lead of a fine quality has been reported on this island.

On the 13th January 1849 letters-patent were issued, conferring on the Hudson's Bay Company the sovereignty of Vancouver's Island, under conditions. The letters declared them to be 'the true and absolute lords and proprietors,' for the purpose of making the island a settlement for emigrant colonists. They were bound to 'dispose of all lands hereby granted to them at a reasonable price,' and to apply the money so raised, as well as that realised from the working of coal, with a deduction of profits not exceeding 10 per cent., to emigration, and the colonisation and improvement of the island. The grant was made revocable if its purpose were not fulfilled by the establishment of a colony in five years.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THE last British colonial possessions to be noticed are the Falkland Islands—a group of small islands in the Atlantic, opposite and at no great distance from the Straits of Magellan. Only two of the islands are of any importance, one being 100 miles long by 60 miles broad, the other being somewhat smaller. These islands are said to form good grazing grounds, and they feed large herds of cattle. They are represented as offering some scope for enterprising emigrants; but too little is known of them to warrant our advising any one to think of them as a place of settlement.

THE UNITED STATES.

THE capacity of the United States as a field of emigration is only one feature of this great country, and to that we confine our attention in the present work, leaving information on other points to be procured from other sources. We begin with a few statistical details worthy of being known by the intending emigrant.

At the establishment of national independence, July 4, 1779, the States were thirteen in number. By extension over new territories, thirty-one States are now represented in Congress, and there are others partly constituted in the manner to be after mentioned. Each State has a local sovereignty, with its own popularly-elected governor and legislature; but all are united for federal purposes, with a central government at Washington.

The population of the United States is now supposed to exceed twenty-two millions. At the census of 1840 the amount was 17,063,353, and in 1830, 12,866,920. The rapidity of increase has been the marked feature of this empire. At the commencement of the century the enumeration gave 5,305,925. In 1820 the numbers were 9,638,131. The annual imports are valued at thirty millions sterling, and the exports at a trifle less. The territory of the republic occupies nearly the whole of that part of the North American continent, which is between the 25th and 49th parallel. The northern point is about 1000 miles distant from the southern, and the extreme breadth about 1700 miles. It contains all grades of vegetation, from the tropical rice, cotton, and sugar-cane, to the hardy northern pine; and in the animal creation, the panthers and venomous reptiles of Southern Asia at one extremity, and the moose-deer and northern bear at the other. The greatest variety of all, however, is exhibited in its mixed population. The first great contrast is between men too free to inhabit anything but a republic, and slaves brought into the position of chattels bought and sold. There are English Quakers and French Catholics. The colonisation of the Dutch has left its trace in the central states, where communities still speak the language of Holland, and where, in the midst of the republic, the old Dutch hereditary title of the Patroon of Albany is still suffered. There are German villages where English is not spoken, and others colonised by Swedes, Danes, and Finlanders. In Mexico the indolent Spaniard is jostled by the rapid, impatient Anglo-Saxon Yankee. Many remains of the old French settlements still exist on the Mississippi, while in almost all parts of the States the several varieties of race inhabiting the British Empire are found. The staple, however, there as here,

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is the great Anglo-Saxon community, predominating in England, lowland Scotland, and the north of Ireland.

Though the same republican institutions prevail throughout the States, the habits of the people are as varied as their origin. In the southern slave states there is a haughty languid indolence of manner, and an adherence to old formal habits, which have become obsolete in this country; while the men of the north and west are renowned for their brisk, officious, inquisitive, rapid manners. In the shifting west, family and origin are matters little considered; but in the old states of Virginia and Maryland, the social privileges assigned to good birth are guarded all the more jealously, because there are no political privileges held by hereditary descent. The most conspicuous social distinctions, however, arise from the great blot of the American constitution—slavery. It is cordially and honestly hated by one portion of the inhabitants of the Union, but resolutely supported by the other. By the census of 1840, the slaves in the United States approached the appalling number of two millions and a half (2,487,355.) They had increased by nearly half a million in ten years, and had risen from 893,041 since the commencement of the century. The chief slave states are Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, and Florida. In New York, Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan and Indiana, there are no slaves, or at most in one or two of these states a nominal remnant of the system. Thus in New York, where there were 20,000 slaves at the commencement of the century, the census of 1840 exhibited but 4; in Pennsylvania, where the number had been 3737 in 1790, it was reduced to 64; and in Connecticut, where there were 2759, the number was reduced to 17. On the other hand, in Alabama there were only 41,879 slaves in 1820, and in 1840 they had increased to 253,532. South Carolina is the greatest slave territory, the numbers had increased from 146,151 at the commencement of the century to 327,038 in 1840. In Georgia the number was 59,504 in 1800, and 280,944 in 1840.

This is a matter of importance to the intending emigrant, since the slave states are unsuitable for his purposes. The mechanic and farm-labourer will not seek a country where honest industry is associated with bondage and all its degradations. But what is more material, there is no room for him; where services may be enforced there is always a superabundance of it going. However dear slave labour may be made in a slave state, it will always be cheaper than free labour; were it not, the masters would abandon their slaves. At the same time, slave states are unsuitable to the constitution of the inhabitants of this country, and especially to

those who require to labour. The indolence and all the appliances of wealth by which the affluent planter surrounds himself, are insufficient to preserve him from the deadly influences of the climate. To understand how this is an almost unvarying concomitant of slave labour, we must keep in view the peculiar circumstances in which it is more valuable than free labour. It occurs where a very humble grade of labour only is required to gather in and make use of the prolific fruits of the soil; but where the climate is so oppressive that only the races of tropical descent can with impunity give even that amount of labour, while they will not give it unless under compulsion. Hence slave labour found its natural location in tropical America, the West Indies, and the Mauritius. Slave labour would not pay in the forges, manufactories, and dockyards in this country, otherwise our criminal prisoners might be made self-supporting—an advantage they are far from attaining. Thus wherever the mechanic, the agricultural labourer, or the industrious small farmer, sees a state branded as one of the regular slave states, he may know that it is not a place for *him*.

But it is not to be inferred that wherever the law sanctions slavery, and a few slaves exist, the state comes within the objection. However odious it may be to witness a few domestic slaves, the economy of the district, as one adapted to emigration, will not be affected by them. Wherever the climate permits, and the nature of the soil demands the highest class of labour, slavery will not virtually exist; and it must disappear where the barrenness of the soil renders it necessary for the people to support themselves by mechanical employment. Wherever the system of small settlements and small farms are the natural arrangement of agriculture, slavery cannot virtually subsist, for slave-work, to be economical, must be performed in gangs and under discipline. Hence it is maintained that the law sanctioning slavery in Texas will not make it virtually a slave state.

With regard to the capitalist—there is no doubt that many of the slave states hold out pecuniary inducements to him. It is said that in some of the older states, as Virginia and Maryland, there are many valuable old farms which, from the great Californian migration, can be obtained on moderate terms. But with every allowance for the prejudices and the other difficulties of contending with old-established practices, to become a slave-owner could be looked on as nothing short of a crime in one brought up amidst British institutions and opinions. Nor would such investments only involve mere slave-ownership. In these old states the fertility of the soil has sometimes been greatly exhausted, and the land-owners continue to be rather slave-breeders for the new southern states than mere raisers of slave-labour produce.



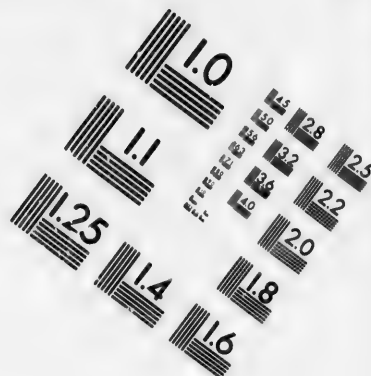
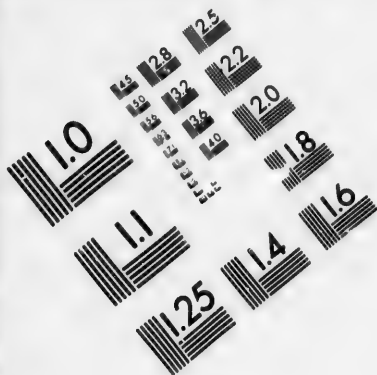
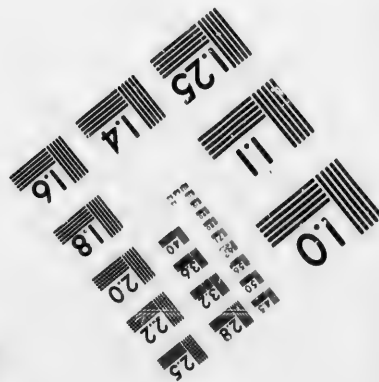
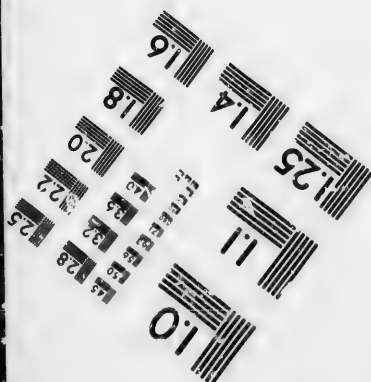
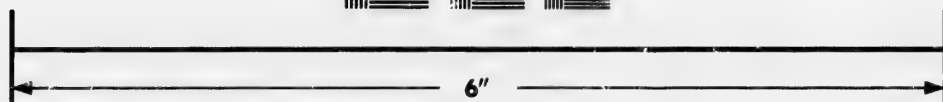
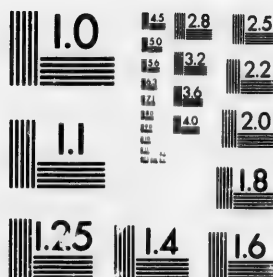
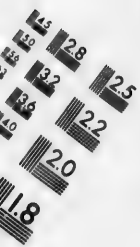


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Looking to the social and moral condition of the proper emigration states, it may be safely said that nowhere can a refugee find more independence and toleration than by selecting his position over this vast concretion of distinct and dissimilar social systems. This has its evil, doubtless—it affords a refuge for crime, and a hiding-place for branded reputations; but so it must be in every advancing prolific country, where people are daily coming in contact with new faces. It has, however, its good and humane aspect. There are bigots and exclusionists of all kinds, and of the bitterest intensity, in the States, if people desire to find them out; but, on the other hand, those who have what are here called peculiarities of opinion, will find refuge for them there, as the Quakers and Puritans did of old; and may even succeed in passing from an arena where they are socially persecuted, and not only be safe from annoyance, but establish a little exclusive community of their own. The Mormons would never have been allowed in any thickly-inhabited country to bloom out unmolested in all their absurdity, and then fade, leaving their magnificent palace empty and undisturbed, as they did in the West. Mr Joseph Sturge, in his visit to the United States, describes the Weld and Grunke circle of abstainers—a family with many able followers. ‘In the household arrangements,’ he says, ‘of this distinguished family, Dr Graham’s dietetic system is rigidly adopted, which excludes meat, butter, coffee, tea, and all intoxicating beverages. I can assure all who may be interested to know, that this Roman simplicity of living does not forbid enjoyment, when the guest can share with it the affluence of such minds as daily meet at their table.’ In the old country, people so ‘fanciful,’ instead of being a distinguished circle, would be sneered down to the most abject condition in the social scale.

The emigrant of the higher classes in this country, before he makes up his mind to proceed to the United States, must consider and weigh with reference to his position, his habits, and his expectations, the general equality that pervades the country. It is needless to speak here of the difficulty of procuring domestic servants and humble attendants out of the slave states—that must be well known. Our tourists tell quite enough about the free, easy, inquisitive manners of ‘Brother Jonathan;’ and the English gentleman is generally prepared for any extent of enormity on that point. But he should be prepared for the general influence of equality in fortunes as well as society, and remember that the States are a place to live in, but not to make a fortune in. True there are instances of great wealth in the States, especially among the owners of slave properties; and there are instances where fortunes have been made rapidly. But these instances are exceptional, and there

is nothing fit for comparison with the vast contrasts exhibited by the social grades of this country. If fortunes *are* to be made, they are not likely to fall to the lot of our countrymen. A people still more acute and enterprising are in the field before them, sedulously searching out all the avenues to wealth. The Englishman who wants to make a rapid fortune and return with it, will have better chances among the indolent Spaniards and Portuguese of the south. He who proceeds to the United States must make up his mind to be content with a competency, and the belief that he will leave to his descendants a solid comfortable patrimony, ever gradually rising in value.

A glance at official salaries readily shews how much incomes just large enough to provide all the comforts and simple elegances of life, but no larger, prevail in America. The highest official salary, that of the president, is 25,000 dollars, or about £5208. This is on a totally different scale from all the other salaries. Thus the highest officers in the ministry—the secretary of state, secretary of the treasury, and secretary of war—have each 6000 dollars, little more than £1200. The chief-justice of the Supreme Court has 5000 dollars—a trifle more than £1000 of our money; and the other judges have 4500 dollars each. The Americans are essentially a practical people. They would have too much good sense to grudge the market-price of efficient public service; and we must conclude that the general tendency to equality in income admits of the public being ably and honestly served at a price which we would consider likely, in this country, to occasion incapacity and corruption. It would seem that in some of the old slave states, where there is more of a wealthy aristocracy, it has been necessary to adjust the incomes of the local magistrates to the circumstance. While in such states as Connecticut, Delaware, and Maine, the salaries of the chief-justices vary from 1200 to 1800 dollars, the president of the Court of Appeals in Virginia has 5750 dollars, and the chancellor of Maryland, 3000 dollars.

Money.—Already we have referred to the American system of dollars. A dollar is equal, speaking roundly, to 4s. 2d. of our money. This is not the precise equivalent, but by an act of Congress in 1832 it was so fixed, for the payment of *ad valorem* duties in the American customhouse. The dollar thus makes about the fifth part of a guinea. It is often useful, when large sums are mentioned in the coinage of another country, to have a formula for guessing at something approaching the value in our own money. When a large round sum is mentioned in dollars, if we cut off a cipher, and double the amount, we know that we are near the truth in pounds or guineas of our own money. Thus when the amount is 3000 dollars (expressed thus—\$3000),

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if we cut off the last cipher, and double the amount, we have 600; which, if we say pounds, will be rather below the amount, as 6000 pence, or 500 shillings, equal to £25, have to be added to make the exact sum. If the amount be stated in guineas, it will be nearer the truth, but rather above it. In reading American books and papers, when one does not require to be precisely accurate, yet wishes to have a general notion of the sums mentioned, it is convenient to use such a rough and rapid mental process.

CONSTITUTIONAL PRIVILEGES OF THE SETTLER.

The proposing emigrant who selects the United States as his place of destination, will naturally have considered the nature of its constitution as well as its social condition. He must be prepared, of course, to find something different from what he is accustomed to at home, but not *so* different as he would find his position under a Russian or Austrian despotism. He ought not to found his anticipations of the state of the country on the picturesque descriptions or indignant outcries of tourists. A despotic country is the most agreeable to the mere sight-seer—everything is subserviency and courtesy in a place where he is going to spend his money in pleasure, not to become an active citizen; and when he gets over some little pedantries about passports and police-books, he will be delighted with the civility and good-temper he meets with, and the great attention paid to him. On the other hand, the mere traveller in the United States is allowed to make his own way unaided. Every one looks after himself; and people's avocations are too important to give them an inducement to put themselves at the service of the traveller, like the Swiss guides or the Italian ciceronis. The States, therefore, do not hold out their most prepossessing aspect to the ordinary tourist; but the proposing emigrant should look deeper into matters, for he goes not to be a sojourner but a citizen.

Such is the peculiarity of this remarkable country. With us a foreigner, except in a few peculiar cases, is ever an alien—unrepresented, and without the right even to hold landed property; and so it is in almost every other old country. But in the United States the settler becomes a citizen, and an organised part of the constitution.

Every one knows that the sovereignty of the United States is in a president and vice-president, with a Congress, consisting of two Houses—the Senate and the Representatives. The president and vice-president, as well as the Congress, are elected by the people; and though there be some distinctions in the arrangement

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of the several states, the suffrage is virtually universal to all free males twenty-one years old. The form of the ballot or secret voting has been introduced, on the principle that each voter is responsible only to his own conscience for his vote, and that giving others an opportunity of knowing how he acts only tends to give them the means of influencing him against his conscience. No one is eligible as a member of Congress unless he have been seven years a citizen. The number of representatives varies with the population, so as to prevent, as far as possible, the members of any small community from exercising an undue influence, by having as much representation as a large population. In 1823 the representation was fixed at one member for each 40,000 inhabitants. In 1832 the number was increased to 47,700. It was still found, however, that with the prospects of increase in the population, the House would become too large for the convenient transacting of business; and in 1842 an act of Congress was passed, appointing the body to consist of 'one representative for every 70,680 persons in each state, and of one additional representative for each state having a fraction greater than one moiety of the said ratio.' Under this regulation there are 232 representatives, along with two delegates from Oregon and Minnesota, who have a right to speak, but not to vote. Still this law was deemed insufficient to keep the members in the House to a proper level. It was adopted as a principle that 233 members should be the utmost limit. An act of Congress was passed in 1850 for taking a census of the population in 1853, and regulating the matter of representation at the same time. It was appointed that the free population of all the States shall be estimated, excluding Indians not taxed, and that there shall then be added to the number three-fifths of all other persons. This aggregate is to be divided by 233, and the quotient, rejecting fractions, if any, is to be the ratio of the appointment of representatives among the several states. The representative population of each state is then to be ascertained, and divided by the ratio so found; and the quotient of this last division is to be the number of representatives apportioned to each state.

The president and the vice-president are chosen by ballot in the first instance. If an absolute numerical majority of the electors vote for one man, he is president. If, however, there is no such absolute majority, those at the head of the poll are chosen, not exceeding three in number, and are made a list for the representatives of the States to vote on. In this question it is not, however, each member who votes, but each state. The Senate, or upper House of Congress, consists of two representatives from each state, chosen by their local legislatures.

To the emigrant these local legislatures, with their constitutions

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and practice, will probably be of more immediate importance than the general federative constitution. Each state has its own government for its own internal affairs, not responsible to Congress for the exercise of the powers conferred on it by the constitution. Among the powers of the central government are, however, all things relating to what may be called the construction of such states; and therefore, although the cultivated land and the rights of its inhabitants are matters for the States to deal with separately, the waste land is considered as belonging to the Union, and the legislation regarding its disposal is undertaken by Congress. This does not, however, prevent the separate states from legislating on the admission of emigrants, and we shall afterwards find that important acts were passed on this matter by the state of New York. Nor does it prevent the States from acquiring possession of waste lands under the public system, as many corporations may do. There are some arrangements of this character of a complicated nature, where rights are given to states as to waste lands in other states. The waste lands belonging to the Union are a sort of means of remuneration or reward, given to individuals or to communities; and frequently a state obtains a portion of its own waste lands for services. Thus in 1849 an act of Congress was passed, 'to aid the state of Louisiana in draining the swamp lands therein,' in which all swamp and overflowed lands incapable of cultivation are given to the state, on the condition of the state performing certain improvements entirely at its own expense. In the construction of railways it is usual to vest the waste lands required for them in the states through which they pass.

It was early predicted that the United States must fall to pieces, so heterogeneous were the materials of which it is composed. It was anticipated that the local state legislatures must come into collision with the central government. The totally distinct character and interests of the northern and the southern states were, it was thought, likely to cause an insuperable division; and indeed the former, finding an interest in home manufactures, are the great advocates of a protective system against foreign importations; while the southern states, desirous to export their abundant raw produce, have an interest in encouraging a trade with other nations. The slave-holders and the abolitionists created another division of interests and feelings—the old-established states on the Atlantic, and the newly-constructed territories in the west, constituted to so great an extent by immigration, made still another. Yet the constitution has remained unshaken, and with no alteration save in some petty details since its adoption in 1787. Thus the constitution made for two and a half millions of people has been found adequate for the government of nearly ten times

that number. Whatever may be its defects, there is no better evidence of the truly practical and constitutional tendency of the British mind. It may be safely pronounced that it was a task quite out of the capacity of any community who had not among them a predominance of people of British origin. The republics constructed in all other parts of the world, frequently under far more favourable auspices, have lamentably failed, while this has lived.

No part of the system is more interesting to the intending emigrant than that by which the extending western populations are gradually made into temporary governments, and incorporated with the Union. Thus, in the session of 1849, an act of Congress was passed for laying out a state in that south-western territory between the Mississippi and Missouri, to which the British emigrants passing through Canada proceed. It received the name of Minnesota. This territory, formed of the overflowing as it were of the Wisconsin and Iowa States, was appointed by the act to be thus bounded—its south-east corner to be at the Mississippi, at the point where the line of $43^{\circ} 30'$ of north latitude crosses it; thence running due west in this line, which is fixed as the northern boundary of Iowa, to the north-west corner of that state; thence southerly along the western boundary till it strikes the Missouri; thence by the Missouri and the White-earth River to the southern boundary of the British possessions on the 49th parallel; and on from that to Lake Superior, and by the western boundary of Wisconsin to the Mississippi. The act appoints that every free white male inhabitant, twenty-one years old, may vote or be elected to office, provided he be either a citizen of the United States, or have taken an oath of his intention to become such, with the oath of allegiance to the constitution, and the observance of the act. When a local legislature is thus chosen, it fixes the qualification of voters and officers. The legislative assembly is to consist of a council and house of representatives. The council is to consist of nine members, chosen for two years; and the representatives of eighteen members, chosen for one year. No law can be passed by this body interfering with the primary disposal of the soil, and no tax can be laid on the property of the United States. A supreme court and district courts are appointed. To start the new state with a code of laws which it may alter at its leisure, it is enacted that the laws of Wisconsin, at the date of its admission as a state, are to be the laws of Minnesota.

The name of this new state has not yet found its way into the books of geography, yet in a few years it will probably be one of the most wealthy and populous territories in the new world. Nor is the name of another territory created by act of Congress in 1850 better known. It is called Utah. It is bounded on the

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west by California, on the north by Oregon, on the east by the summit of the Rocky Mountains, and on the south by the 37th parallel. It is provided that the territory may afterwards be admitted into the Union, with or without slavery, as its constitution may prescribe at the time of admission. A similar measure was passed in the same session as to New Mexico. For the gold district, which has lately created so much sensation, a farther and conclusive step in legislative union was made in 1850, in 'An Act for the admission of the State of California into the Union.' The state is admitted on the condition that its legislature shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the public lands within its limits, and shall do nothing to interfere with the right of the United States collectively to dispose of them, or to lay a tax on these lands. A jealousy of any interference with the uniformity of the system for the disposal of land is a conspicuous feature in all these acts of union or annexation.

The main and most serious defect in all these new states, and one which the proposing emigrant will have gravely to consider, is the powerlessness of the law within them. A federative republic is always feeblest, where a central government is strongest, in the outskirts. In our own colonies the power of the crown is far more irresistible than at home, where it is subject to constitutional and popular checks. Even in a society like that of New South Wales, impregnated with elements of the grossest criminality, it has been able to preserve obedience and order. In the United States the central government fixes the constitution and the laws, but leaves their practice and enforcement to the people themselves. Hence how far there is justice, freedom, and protection for life and property will depend on the character of the people who flock to the district. In the new south-western states especially, this has by no means been of the best kind. The public have heard only too much of the reckless, profligate character of the men who have flocked especially to the gold regions; and if we may believe what travellers tell, even judges in Texas are highway robbers. The emigrant who proposes to go to any of the new states must not, therefore, trust to the law and the constitution for protection; he must trust to the character of his neighbours; and he will find himself best situated in those tracts to which the peaceful husbandman and not the gold-seeker or the hunter resorts.

MEANS OF CONVEYANCE.

The means of transit to the various Atlantic ports of the United States—New York, Boston, Baltimore, Charleston, New

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Orleans, &c.—are, as already stated, abundant, and the cost of a passage exceedingly moderate. Those who go to Australia, New Zealand, or Africa, are either persons with some means of their own, out of which they incur the expense of so long a voyage, or are taken under government or other public responsibility. America, however, being the nearest emigration field, has been the destination of the most wretched; and the competition among shipowners has been, not to give good accommodation at the most moderate rate, but to bid down to the lowest sum at which it is practical to convey their human cargo. Great efforts have been made by the legislature to check the natural tendency of this practice, on the principle, in the first place, that people are not to carry on a trade in a manner to endanger human life; and in the second place, that as the passenger is completely at the mercy of the shipowners when he is on board, it is necessary to bind them by law to perform what is requisite for his comfort and health, otherwise he cannot prevent them from sacrificing it. Several Passenger Acts have been passed from time to time for the regulation of emigrant vessels, and it may be hoped that the legislature has at last succeeded in extending a sufficient protection. The latest of these was passed on 13th July 1849 (13 and 14 Vict. c. 33.) Its obligations cannot easily be enforced against foreign vessels; and it must be remembered that much of the emigration of the present day is carried on in those of the United States. The owners of the ships bringing grain, which of course is a bulky commodity, to Britain, have found it an expedient arrangement to adapt them for return with emigrants.

It used formerly to be the practice for those intending to penetrate into the Far West to take their passage to New York; and the richer class of passengers whose destination was in Canada sometimes preferred this route to the dangers of the St Lawrence passage, or the tediousness of the Rideau Canal. The practice is, however, now likely to be reversed by the operations for improving the navigation of the St Lawrence, which have been mentioned under the head of Canada (p. 11.) Great hopes are entertained in that province that it will be the main thoroughfare to the Western and Upper Mississippi districts. The Executive Council of State of Upper Canada issued a document on this subject, from which the following extract is made. Though coming from so important an official body, it may be observed that the report has a good deal of the tone and character of an advertisement praising their own commodity to the depreciation of that of their neighbours:—

‘It is important to call attention to the great saving effected in

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time, as well as comfort, by taking the St Lawrence route. The distance from Quebec to Chicago in Illinois, which is about 1600 miles, may be performed in about ten days without transshipment; and the steamers touch at the ports of Cleveland, Sandusky, whence there is a railway to Cincinnati, and Toledo in Ohio, Detroit in Michigan, and Milwaukee in Wisconsin; all which places can be reached in proportionate time. The dimensions of the locks on the Welland Canal are 150 feet long by 26½ feet wide; and on the St Lawrence Canals, 200 feet long by 45 feet wide. The length of the Erie Canal is 363 miles, with a lockage of 688 feet. The locks, eighty-four in number, are 90 feet in length by 15 feet in width, with a draught of 4 feet of water; and the canal is navigated by vessels carrying not more than from 600 to 700 barrels of flour [while those on the St Lawrence are stated to carry from 4000 to 5000 barrels.] The length of the voyage from New York to Buffalo, there being at least one transshipment, may be stated at about ten days; but it is very uncertain, as there are frequent delays arising from various causes. The rate of passage from Quebec to Cleveland, Ohio, without transshipment, is stated by Mr Buchanan to have been during last season, just after the completion of the canals, six dollars, or about 24s. sterling for each adult. At this rate several German families, bound for the Western States, obtained passages. It may, however, be fairly assumed, that even this low rate will be still further reduced by competition. The Committee of Council have no information before them of the cost of passage paid from New York to Cleveland; but as there must be at least two transshipments, and as the time occupied in the passage is fully a week longer than by the St Lawrence route, it is needless to say that the expense must be much greater. With regard to the cost of transport of goods, an important fact has been brought under the notice of the Committee of Council. It appears that the Great Ohio Railway Company, having had occasion to import about 11,000 tons of railway iron, made special inquiries as to the relative cost of transport by the St Lawrence and New York routes; the result of which inquiries was, that a preference was given to the former. The rate of freight on this iron from Quebec to Cleveland was about 20s. sterling per ton, and the saving on the inland transport alone 11,000 dollars; and there can be no doubt that a much greater amount was likewise saved on the ocean freight. The Committee of Council are of opinion, that the superior advantages of the St Lawrence route only require to be made known to insure for it a preference.

It is proper to remark, that the opinions about the availability of the St Lawrence as a passage to the Western States are amply confirmed by the observations of Mr Johnston. Nay, he opens up still more important views on the subject, by representing this as the passage through which the agricultural produce of these distant regions will pass to the British market.

If the emigrant be possessed of means which he is afraid of dis-

sipating on the passage, he may consider whether he will not be safer from pillage, by those whose function it is to prey upon the new arriver, in a British colony, than in a place where he is an alien. If he be an emigrant seeking work, this is a question which will not so seriously affect him : but the matter is treated under the head of EMIGRATION.

Like the British North American territories, the United States possess vast means of water-communication. The greater portion of the line of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, is within their territories, and Lake Michigan is entirely so. Lake Superior, 1500 miles in circumference, is supposed to be the largest sheet of fresh water in the world. Its waves heave like the sea, and it is subject to desolating storms. Of its islands, one is enough to make a considerable province—it is a hundred miles long, and from forty to fifty broad. The States have a portion of the rapid St Lawrence, but they possess other means of water-communication on a much more majestic scale. The Mississippi is calculated to be 3200 miles long ; and its availability for navigation may be understood, when it is stated that its source is but 1500 feet above the level of the sea—much the same as that of the River Tweed, and less than that of the Spey and the Dee. If we count the Missouri branch of the river as the proper source, it is 4500 miles long. In this river, and its great affluents the Ohio, the Arkansas, &c., numberless steamboats are continually plying. The facilities of river navigation enable vessels to be used of a totally different character from those which sail on our stormy seas. They are great, handsome, airy wooden palaces, with all their accommodation above the water, on which they float with stately quietness. Gaieties and jovialties proceed in these floating mansions, and many people may be said to live in them, as the Dutch do in their small mouldy track-boats. It is found convenient to have establishments of all kinds here on the waters, where they are in the middle of a floating community—shops, manufactories, theatrical exhibitions ; on the raft-like vessels which lie smoothly on the water, high edifices of cotton bales will be piled, uncovered and unprotected, to the value of a great many thousand pounds at once. The Americans have not failed in efforts to connect their great water-systems with each other. The Erie Canal, though its locks are now said to be inferior to those on the short cuttings for making the St Lawrence safely navigable, is a work of wonderful extent. It unites the navigation of the Hudson with that of the Northern Lakes, having Albany at one extremity, and Buffalo at the other—a distance of 363 miles. There are several lateral branches—‘ one opposite Troy connecting with the Hudson ; one at Syracuse, a mile and a half in length, to Salina ; one from Syra-

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cuse to Oswego, 38 miles in length; one at Orville; one at Chite-ningo; one at Lakeport, extending to the Cuyahoga Lake 5 miles, and from thence to Seneca Lake at Geneva, a distance of 15 miles; and one at Rochester, of 2 miles in length, which serves the double purpose of a navigable feeder and a mean of communication for boats between the canal and the Genessee River. It is 40 feet wide at the top, and 28 feet wide at the bottom. The water flows at the depth of 4 feet in a moderate descent of half an inch in a mile. The tow-path is elevated about 4 feet from the surface of the water, and is ten feet wide. The whole length of the canal includes 83 locks and 18 aqueducts of various extent.'—(*America—its Realities and Resources, by Wye, iii. 198.*)

This track-route is naturally a tedious one—a journey of day and night with little variety; while fame does not in general speak encouragingly of the efforts of American sociality in dispelling the tiresomeness of uniformity, or the still severer trial of narrow comfortless accommodation. 'The part of the cabin,' says the author already cited, 'in which we slept, was scarcely 20 feet in length. Yet in this small space, averaging about 10 feet wide, did they contrive to put up some eighteen berths or resting-places, the seats or couches in which we sat during the day being enlarged, or drawn out to an increased width, forming six—three on each side of the cabin. The other beds were made of a slight wooden framework, to which a hair-mattress of slender proportions was permanently attached. These were temporarily hooked on or fastened to the boat's side, the outward part of the frame (the entire being raised to a level or horizontal position) being hung or suspended by the upper ceiling. These shelves on which we were put to rest for the night, without the formality of undressing, offered but few inducements to sleep.'

The fare, however, is on a correspondingly moderate scale. From Schenectady, where the cars from Albany, Troy, &c., join the canal to Buffalo and Oswego—334 miles—the conveyance-lists for the summer of 1850 gave the fare as 6½ dollars with board, and 5 dollars without. The list announces two daily lines to be run from either end during the navigation season.

Our brethren of the Union, however, have not contented themselves with this lazy semi-obsolete mode of travelling. A brisk railway-communication now exists between Albany and Buffalo. The lists just quoted ('Disturnell's Railroad, Steamboat, and Telegraph Book') announce six trains a day from either extreme: The first, the express train, through in thirteen hours; next, the mail train; next, 'freight and emigrants;' next, 'first class and emigrants;' then another express; and lastly, the 'accommodation train.' The fare stated is 9 dollars and 75 cents—about 38s.; but

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it is not stated to which train or class it applies. The distance by the railway is 326 miles.

Another great line of canal-communication—the Ohio State Canal—unites the Mississippi navigation with that of the lakes, joining Lake Erie at Cleveland. The vast railway system will speedily have united the Hudson and the Atlantic states with the Ohio navigation, if it have not already been accomplished. Railways in America are not the complete and finished lines brought into existence by the concentrative power of a legislative enactment which we are accustomed to consider them in this country. They are of local growth and adjustment, and thus their statistics are less completely known. A railway in its infancy is scarcely perceptible. Beams are laid down crossways, so as to form a rough road; others are laid at right angles to them, at the gage required; and these, with a plate of iron laid along their edge, serve for a railway till a more complete one can be afforded. In many instances there is no iron at all, and the whole is constructed of wood, which is abundant enough for the renewal of all parts decaying. In the American Almanac for 1851, great pains have been taken to collect the statistics of all the railway lines; but they are admitted to be imperfect. The total mileage collected, however, is 8439. There are enumerated as in progress at the end of the year 1850, in New England and New York states, no less than twenty-six new principal lines.

These facilities for locomotion, rough, and to a certain extent tedious as many of them are, are of great importance to the emigrant, to whom, without them, the land journey, after he has crossed the Atlantic, might be the most serious part of his expedition. The great routes to the north-west have already been mentioned. In the railroad lists for 1850, it is stated under the head 'Routes to the West and South,' that 'travellers for the west and south, *via* Baltimore and Cumberland (Maryland), can go through in two days from New York to Pittsburg (Pennsylvania) or Wheeling (Virginia) by the railroad and stage route to the Ohio river; thence by commodious steamboats to Cincinnati, St Louis, New Orleans, and the intermediate landings on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.' The list states the usual time from Baltimore to Pittsburg, 34 hours, fare, 11 dollars; usual time from Baltimore to Wheeling, 36 hours, fare, 12 dollars. It would appear, however, that through the forwarding offices at the ports, the emigrant can make arrangements for a far more economical journey than the published rates of the vehicles would indicate. Prices of conveyance shift in America as much as they do at home. But it can do no harm to give the answer of Mr Mintoun, on examination before the Lords' Committee on Emigration, to an inquiry about the price

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of transmission from New York to any of the great seats of internal labour:—The rate of passage, without food, from New York to Buffalo, a distance of 500 miles, is 2½ dollars to 3 dollars; from New York to Cleveland (Ohio), 700 miles, 5 dollars 50 cents; Detroit (Michigan), 850 miles, 6 dollars; Milwaukee (Wisconsin), 1500 miles, 9 dollars 50 cents; Chicago (Illinois), 1500 miles, 9 dollars 50 cents.

Far beyond the limits of public vehicles, the wanderer with his family may be met on the scarce-formed bridle-road, or even the open grass prairie. Day after day the wagon containing all the household possessions of the family makes its short journey, and at night all encamp—the rifle of the head of the family being alike their protection and their means of supply. But this is a species of locomotion for which the American citizen moving westward is better adapted than the fresh immigrant.

The American country roads are heartily abused by strangers—their deep mud in wet weather, the clouds of dust that pass along them in a high wind in dry weather. Travellers often amuse their readers with the horrors of travelling in a vehicle without springs along a corduroy-road, or a road laid with transverse planks of wood. But in the places perforated by these somewhat imperfect roads, the wonder is to find a road at all; and these rough distant lines of communication are a strong testimony of the energy and enterprise of those who are penetrating into the distant wilds of the south. In the 'Notes of a Foreigner on American Agriculture,' in the 'New York American Agriculturist' for March 1851, there is an account of a new class of roads, called plank-roads, something between a road and a railway. They are thus described:—

'In districts sufficiently populous to pay for their construction, a species of road is laid down, called a "plank-road." These roads are excellent contrivances, and facilitate the communication between farms and market-towns very much. Although they are of comparatively recent introduction, immense tracts of country are laid with them. They are supported by tolls, these in the state of New York demanding six cents (threepence) for a single-horsed gig or buggy, for a run of eight or ten miles. The mode of laying them down is very simple, and may be briefly described. The line of road is marked out, and levelled as much as possible. As they are generally laid down in the track of roads previously made, the centre is raised, leaving a hollow on each side, into which the water may run off from the planks through small holes or drains. A track little broader than the breadth of a coach or wagon (if for a single line) is marked out, and on each side of this, planks some eight or nine feet long, eight inches broad, and three thick, are laid parallel thereto. These are laid end to end, thus forming a double line of planks along

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the road. On the top of these side-supports the planks on which the carriages run, forming the roadway, are laid. These project a little beyond the side-supports. They are generally some ten to fourteen inches broad, and two or three thick. The side of the embankment is brought up so as to cover the ends, and the road is complete.'

PRODUCTIONS.

The productions of the United States are various as the soil and climate. The Northern States grow all the cereals and other agricultural productions commonly known in this country, together with the staple grain of the western continent—Indian corn. In the Southern States the same productions are found more or less, but they give place to those of more tropical climates—rice, cotton, tobacco, indigo, the sugar-cane, olives, &c. Fruit is abundant, and apples especially are a considerable article of export. Mr Johnston considers the culture of the apple a very important point in American agriculture, and mentions that the western part of New York and Northern Ohio have entered into earnest competition with the old orchard countries. 'Their rich soils,' he says, 'produce larger and more beautiful fruit, but inferior, it is said, in that high flavour which distinguishes the Atlantic apples. This inferiority, however, is not conceded by the western cultivators, among whom orchard-planting is rapidly extending, and who estimate the average profit of fruit cultivation at 100 to 150 dollars an acre (£20 to £30.)' Hemp, flax, and silk are produced. The produce of animals, both farm and wild, is exported in the various shapes of butcher-meat, leather, skins, and wool. Timber of various valuable kinds abounds, and gives rise, not only to a trade in wood, but in bark, dye-stuffs, ashes, tar, turpentine, and rosin, besides furnishing maple-sugar. There are considerable fisheries. The mines produce iron, copper, gold, and mercury; and the coal-fields cover a surface so large as to exclude the possibility of naming a practical limit to the extent of the supply. The salt springs, and various stone and clay deposits, are of considerable importance.

In the American statistical tables the productions are ranged under those of the sea, the forest, and agriculture. In the year ending 30th June 1849 the exports under the first head amounted to 2,547,654 dollars; the products of the forest to 5,917,994. The agricultural products of animals were estimated at 13,153,302; those of vegetable food at 25,642,362; tobacco, 5,804,207; cotton, 66,396,967; hemp, 8458. The miscellaneous vegetable productions were reckoned at 84,092. The tables for 1850, published in

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1851, give the following items in dollars :—Products of the sea, 2,824,818; products of the forest, 7,442,503; productions of agriculture, including grain, butcher-meat, wool, and skins, 26,371,756; cotton, 71,984,616; tobacco, 9,921,053; miscellaneous agricultural produce, 152,363.

Cotton is the great staple export of the United States to this country—indeed it constitutes, out of all comparison, the largest item of general exportation. But the staple production for exportation to which the British emigrant must look is grain, to feed the inhabitants of his own country, increasing, notwithstanding his departure, at the rate of a thousand a day. In the valley of the Ohio alone there is productive land adapted to this purpose, for all practical and immediate purposes, inexhaustible. There is reason to believe that the grain exports of America, considerable as they are, are yet but in their infancy. The value of the bread-stuffs exported in the year ending in June 1850 was 15,698,066 dollars. Of this the meal and wheat-flour formed 7,742,315.

A return was made to parliament in 1850 of the prices of wheat per quarter at the various places of export throughout the world, from 1844 to 1849 inclusive. The lowest sum for New York in 1844 was in October, when the price came so far down as 26s. 11d. This is the lowest in the whole table. The highest price during that year appears to have been 37s. 2d. in April. The highest price reached during the whole course of the six years is 79s. per quarter in February 1847. This appears to have been a momentary elevation, arising from the state of the markets in Britain produced by the famine. The week previously the price was 59s. 10d.; and in the previous month it had been as low as 40s. 4d., returning in September to a still lower sum—39s. In 1849 the lowest prices were 34s. 2d., the highest 46s. 8d., and these may be held to be the extremes in ordinary years.

New Orleans, receiving the corn of the great valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi, gives the lowest quotations of prices in the American market, and will be likely to be the gate through which the greatest stream of grain-supply in the world will pass, though there is reason to believe that as to the produce of the more northerly of the Western States, the St Lawrence may compete with it. The return to parliament of the prices of wheat, from 1844 to 1849 inclusive, embraces New Orleans. The lowest price which occurs in this table—and perhaps it is the lowest that has appeared anywhere—is 16s. 10d. in May 1846; the highest price at that time being, however, 28s. 10d. So low a sum as the neighbourhood of 17s. is of pretty frequent occurrence. The highest sum during the whole period is in 1847—56s. 7d.; an elevation caused doubtless by the famine in the United Kingdom.

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In 1849 the extremes were 25s. 1d. and 34s. 1d. It will be seen that these prices are on a different scale from those of New York.

One of the most remarkable of the staple-productions of the States, and one of the most readily available to new settlers, is what is called the *hog crop*, entering the market in the shape of cured pork. Its chief centre is Ohio, and it is peculiar to those states which produce an abundance of Indian corn, and have stretches of acorn forest. Mr Johnston attributes the abundance of this produce to the necessity of an outlet for Indian corn, which was exported until late years only in very scanty quantities. Hence the best exit was found in the fattening of pigs. Mr Johnston enumerates six states—Missouri, Tennessee, Kentucky, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio—in which the number of pigs killed in the year 1846 exceeded a million, the number in Ohio being 420,833. 'The packing business,' he says, 'in Ohio has been gradually concentrating itself in Cincinnati, where, in the winter of 1847 and 1848, about 420,000 hogs were sold, killed, and packed. The blood is collected in tanks, and with the hair, hoofs, and other offal, is sold to the prussiate-of-potash manufactories. The carcass is cured either into barrelled pork or into bacon and hams, and the grease rendered into lard of various qualities. Some establishments cure the hams; and after cutting up the rest of the carcass, steam it in large vats, under a pressure of seventy pounds to the square inch, and thus reduce the whole to a pulp, bones and all, and draw off the fat. The residue is either thrown away or is carted off for manure. One establishment disposes in this way of 30,000 hogs.' Among the articles of export to which this produce contributes, we have not only pork, bacon, and lard, but stearine candles, bar and fancy soaps, prussiate of potash, bristles and glue, and also the finer preparations of the fat, which are used to adulterate spermaceti, and even olive oil.

• TOPOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS AND THEIR CAPABILITIES.

There are different systematic geographical divisions of the territory of the United States. One of the most usual is to consider the Alleghany Mountains and the Rocky Mountains as two dividing lines, which afford three ranges of country: the north and east, or Atlantic States; those of the great valley of the Mississippi; and the western districts, sloping from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific. For the purposes of emigration, however, it will be better to consider them under a different division: the Northern States, chiefly containing the old lands and the cities adapted to the purposes of the mechanic; the Western territories,

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where the settlers seeking new land go ; and the Southern States, chiefly slave-served, and, for the reasons already stated, not well adapted for British emigration.

THE NORTHERN ATLANTIC STATES.

The northern territories may be classified as Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. It is in the large cities and rising villages of this cluster that the trained mechanic, or the person who seeks the western world for other than agricultural pursuits, will generally settle ; and it is a common advice to the emigrant from this country, to satisfy himself well that the northeast is not the quarter best adapted to his views before he seek the more distant regions of the west or south. None of these states contain any of the public waste lands of the United States. It does not follow that there is not abundance of uncleared land, especially in New York, which stretches far west into the lake country, and in Maine ; but it is all the property of individuals or companies.

A considerable portion of this affluent territory produces timber ; and the chief agricultural productions may be generally classed as cattle, sheep, and pigs, with their exportable produce, for live-stock, and wheat, oats, barley, rye, Indian corn, buckwheat, peas, beans, and potatoes, hops, and flax. Apples, growing rather in orchards than in gardens, are very abundant in the old states. Those imported to this country are deemed a great luxury from their juiciness and sweetness ; and in America they are a very important article of domestic consumption, being cooked in a variety of forms. Pear, plum, and other fruit-trees are also cultivated. Among the luxuries of the garden character, though of field produce, may be mentioned the green Indian corn, which is compared, when gathered at the right time, to green peas.

Maine and New Hampshire are moderately hilly, and, especially the former, produce a considerable quantity of timber. There are extensive tracts of an unpromising character ; but the old cultivated grain lands render forty bushels of maize per acre, and from twenty to forty of wheat. In New Hampshire there is a great diversity of water-power ; and this, with the energetic character of the population, and the somewhat low agricultural capabilities, have made it a great manufacturing state.

Mr Johnston, who passed apparently rapidly through this part of the country, says : ' Farming in Maine is not of itself profitable enough to satisfy the haste of the people to become rich. The

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farms are for the most part small—from 80 to 100 acres—and the land I passed through generally poor. Complaints against the climate, if I may judge from my own experience, abound ten times more here than when I heard them in New Brunswick—that the season is short; that Indian corn wont ripen; and so on. Oats and potatoes, however, are allowed to be sure crops when the latter are free from disease. On the Kenebec River, which is further to the west, there are good intervale lands, and the uplands, which are a strong loam, are very productive in hay. Stock-husbandry is for this reason beginning to be attended to in that district of the state, but the turnip culture is still almost unknown. Maine is considered as the centre of the northern lumber trade of the United States.

Vermont and Massachusetts follow in a great measure the same character. Part of the country is mountainous—the hills rising to 4000 feet above the level of the sea. Massachusetts is a rich and prosperous seat of trade and manufactures. Its agricultural capacities are limited, but they have been carefully developed. Mr Macgregor says: 'Agriculture has been carefully and skilfully attended to in this state. No extensive or alluvial tracts occur in Massachusetts; although limited spots occur on the banks of most of the streams, and, with the adjoining elevated woodlands and pastures, have, by skilful industry, been brought under profitable cultivation, and form the best farms in the state. There are numerous uncultivated swamps. The greater part of the soil of Massachusetts is diluvial and ungenerous. By clearing away the stones and rocks, and by the extensive application of manure, many of the originally sterile districts have been converted into productive farms.' This is, however, too much of the old country's character to make the state a popular one with agricultural emigrants. Yet if the existence of unoccupied land were all that the emigrant required, it would be here provided in considerable abundance. From the census returns of 1840, it was found that 220,000 acres were under tillage, and 440,000 in meadows; while beside 730,000 acres woodland, there are 956,000 unimproved. It appeared that the number employed in agriculture bore a proportion of about 1 to $8\frac{1}{2}$ of the population. In a commercial and industrial sense, and for all matters connected with the United States themselves, Massachusetts is of the highest importance, though to the agricultural emigrant it be of secondary importance to others.

Rhode Island and Connecticut fill together a small oblong space on the coast between Massachusetts and New York. Of the former Mr Macgregor says: 'The north-west part of the state is hilly, sterile, and rocky. Hills, though not elevated, pervade the

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northern third of the state; the other parts are level, or generally undulating; especially near Narraganset Bay, and on the islands within it. The soil is in many parts arable, and the farmers affluent. The lands are generally better adapted for grazing than for corn, and it is renowned for the excellence of its cattle and sheep, and its butter and cheese. Maize, or Indian corn, rye, barley, oats, and in some places wheat, are grown, but scarcely in sufficient quantity for home consumption. Fruits and culinary vegetables are produced in great perfection and abundance.

'The climate is healthy, and more mild, particularly on the islands, than in any other part of New England. The sea-breezes moderate the heat of summer and the cold of winter.' The same statement is in a great measure applicable to Connecticut.

New York—the greatest and wealthiest territory of the States—presents vast varieties, both in its social and physical features. It has, besides the city of New York, with its population of 400,000, Albany, the nominal capital, Brooklyn, Hudson, and Oswego; while far north on the lakes which divide the States from Canada, is the city of Buffalo, containing between 30,000 and 40,000 people. The population of the state in 1845 was 2,604,495. Its railways, exceeding 1200 miles; its canals, harbours, public buildings, towns, and manufactories, and, in general, the expenditure of its rich population, give large employment to artisans and labourers. What is closer to the present purpose, they cause the consumption within the province itself of an extensive agricultural produce; while the extending means of conveyance is ever increasing the availability of new and distant districts. The amounts of the various kinds of produce must have greatly increased since 1840, when they are thus stated by Mr Macgregor:—

'The soil in the eastern and south-eastern parts is generally dry, and in some parts loamy. This section is considered as best adapted to grazing, and the western to arable culture. All the hilly and mountain districts afford excellent pasturage. The soil of the alluvions along the rivers, and of innumerable valleys, is remarkably fertile. The valleys of the Mohawk and the Genessee are among the best wheat-growing soils in the world. A clayey soil prevails round parts of Lake Champlain. Marshes, bogs, and sandy plains, are met with in some parts west of Albany. The west end of Long Island, and Dutchess and Westchester counties, are extolled for good culture and productive crops. The principal are wheat, Indian corn, grass, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, and potatoes. Beef and pork, butter and cheese, horses and cattle, pot and pearl ashes, flax-seed, peas, beans, and lumber, form the great articles of export. Orchards abound. The apples, pears, plums, and peaches are delicious and abundant. In the state there were, in 1840, 474,543 horses and mules; 1,911,244 neat cattle; 5,118,777 sheep; 1,900,065 swine;

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poultry to the value of 1,153,413 dollars. There were produced 12,286,418 bushels of wheat; 2,520,060 bushels of barley; 20,675,847 bushels of oats; 2,979,323 bushels of rye; 2,287,888 bushels of buckwheat; 10,972,286 bushels of Indian corn; 9,845,295 pounds of wool; 447,250 pounds of hops; 30,123,614 bushels of potatoes; 3,127,047 tons of hay; 1735 pounds of silk cocoons; 10,048,109 pounds of sugar. The products of the dairy amounted in value to 10,496,021 dollars; and of the orchard to 1,701,935 dollars; of lumber, to 3,891,302 dollars. There were produced 6799 gallons of wine; and of pot and pearl ashes, 7613 tons; tar, pitch, turpentine, &c., 402 barrels.—*Official Returns, &c.*

Mr Johnston, whose experience of the state of American agriculture was chiefly derived from New York, has preserved some interesting particulars as to land and farming there. He observes that a great part of the western portion is damp, cold, and marshy, yet that drainage is unknown; and he mentions having seen, at an exhibition of agricultural instruments at Syracuse, some drain-tiles exhibited as a curiosity. Yet the objections which he has to state to costly drainage in the meantime, and until the country becomes fuller, are pretty solid. 'The cost of this improvement, even at the cheapest rate—say £4, or twenty dollars an acre—is equal to a large proportion of the present price of the best land in this rich district of Western New York. From 50 to 60 dollars an acre is the highest price which farms bring here; and if 25 dollars an acre were expended upon any of it, the price in the market would not rise in proportion.' Or if 40-dollar land should actually be improved one-fourth by thorough drainage, it would still, it is said, not be more valuable than that which now sells at 50 dollars, so that the improver would be a loser to the extent of 15 dollars an acre.' This argument seems unanswerable, whether it apply to the native of the States or to the fresh settler. Mr Johnston, however, found that the agricultural citizens of this state were acutely alive to the advantages of scientific and mechanical improvements in the employment of the soil. He found good evidence of this in the exhibition where he saw the drain-tiles. 'The general character of the implements,' he says, 'was economy in construction and in price, and the exhibition was large and interesting.' Still they partook of what a British agriculturist considers the wasteful character of American husbandry. They were rather directed for the speedy realisation of produce than the improvement of the soil. Such were the reaping machines, calculated to cut from fifteen to twenty-five acres in a day. 'Of course,' says Mr Johnston, 'it is only on flat lands that they can be advantageously employed. But where labour is scarce and unwooded prairie plenty, the owner of a reaping and

a thrashing machine may cultivate as much land as he can scratch with the plough and sprinkle with seed.'

One of the superior productions of the agriculture of the New York state is called Genessee flour. Not that it is all produced in the Genessee Valley, but that the superior excellence of the wheat grown there gave its name to a certain high standard of quality. Mr Johnston naturally examined this district with interest, and found the soil to be 'a rich drift clay—the ruins of the Onondaga salt group—intermixed with fragments of the Niagara and Clinton limestones.' 'A very comfortable race of farmers,' he continues, 'is located in this valley. The richest bottom or intervale land cut for hay or kept for grazing is worth 120 dollars or £26 an acre. The upland—the mixed clay and limestone-gravel land, of which I have already spoken, when sold in farms of 100 to 150 acres—the usual size on this river—brings from 35 to 70 dollars, according to the value of the buildings that are upon it. The bottoms, when ploughed up and sown to wheat, are liable to rust; but the uplands yield very certain crops of 15 to 20 bushels an acre. Land, of which a man with a good team will plough $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ acres a day, costs 6 dollars an acre to cultivate, including seed, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ more to harvest and thrash. Fifteen bushels at 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ dollars (4s. 4d. to 4s. 10d.) give a return of 15 to 17 dollars, leaving a profit of about 6 dollars or 26s. an acre for landlord and tenant's remuneration, and for interest of capital invested in farming stock. That this calculation is near the truth is shewn by the rate at which the average land, producing 16 to 18 bushels, is occasionally let, where it suits parties to make such an arrangement. In these cases 7 to $7\frac{1}{2}$ bushels of wheat an acre are paid for the use of the land. In taking a farm at such a rent as this—half the produce—the tenant makes a sacrifice for the purpose of obtaining an outlet for superfluous home labour.' Here, as in the other Atlantic states, Mr Johnston animadverts on the smallness of the capital invested in farming: 'The land itself, and the labour of their families, is nearly all the capital which most of the farmers possess.' The inducements are evidently greater to the working farmer with a family of sons, and a little money besides what he requires to buy his farm, than to the large capitalist. Mr Johnston met with one of the largest land-proprietors in the state—himself farming 1000 acres. He cleared from 3 to $7\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. on his whole capital, including the market value of the land and of the building and stock. 'For a gentleman farmer,' says Mr Johnston, 'this would be a very fair return, but it is scarcely enough in a country where land gives no political and little social influence, and where, by lending his money and doing nothing, a man can obtain 7 per cent. certain.'

New Jersey is in its character very like the eastern portions of New York, to which it adjoins; and it has to some extent the same advantages to its agriculture from so populous and rich a market.

The northern section of New Jersey is mountainous or hilly; the central parts are diversified by hills and valleys; and the southern part is flat, sandy, and sterile. The natural growth of the soil is shrub-oaks, yellow-pines, marsh-grass, shrubs, &c. With the exception of this barren, but, by industry and manuring, in some parts, cultivated district, the soil of New Jersey affords good pasture and arable land. The produce is chiefly wheat, rye, Indian corn, buckwheat, potatoes, oats, and barley. Apples, pears, peaches, plums, and cherries, are grown in great perfection. In the mountainous districts cattle are of good breed and size, and large quantities of butter and cheese are made. The produce of this state finds a market chiefly at New York and Philadelphia. The principal exports are wheat, flour, horses, cattle, hams, cider, lumber, flax-seed, leather, and iron.

Pennsylvania—stretching far towards the western districts—is like New York, a large, wealthy, enterprising community; its population approaching, if it do not now exceed, 2,000,000. Its capital, Philadelphia, contains nearly 300,000 people. In this territory, as in New York, there is room for artisan and engineering enterprise. But agricultural pursuits occupy the greater part of the population. By the analysed census of 1841, the persons employed in agriculture were 207,533; while those devoted to all other pursuits (including 105,883 in manufactures and trade) amounted to 138,296. Mr Macgregor says:—

“The Alleghany Mountains traverse the state from south-west to north-east, and several ramifications branch from, or run parallel with the principal range. Mountainous tracts over the central parts of the state comprehend nearly one-seventh of its whole area. The south-east and north-west districts are generally level or undulating. The soil east of the mountains is generally fertile, and rendered highly productive. The south-east, on both sides of the Susquehanna, the lands are rich, and having been long settled, it is nearly all under high cultivation. Between the head-waters of the Alleghany and Lake Erie the soil is also very fertile. In the mountainous region the formation of the soil is often rugged, and in many parts sterile; except in the valleys, which are very rich—west of the Alleghanies, and especially near the streams of the Ohio. Some authorities consider Pennsylvania better adapted for grazing than for the plough. The authors of the “United States Gazetteer” are of a different opinion, and observe: “The most important production of the state by far is wheat, which grows here in great perfection; and next in value is Indian corn. Rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, hemp, and flax,

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are also extensively cultivated. Cherries, peaches, and apples are abundant, and much cider is made. Although the state is better adapted to grain than to grazing, yet in many parts there are large dairies, and fine horses and cattle are raised."

THE WESTERN DISTRICTS.

The western emigration states are those vast districts of prairie and woodland watered by the Mississippi, Missouri, and Ohio, and their tributaries, the territories still west of this basin near the northern lakes, and the new countries which slope to the Pacific. As emigration fields, the portion north of the old slave states will only be here considered, but the Southern States will be noticed farther on. The emigration states may be enumerated as Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Missouri, Iowa, and the new territory of Minnesota, in the basin of the great central rivers. To the same system geographically belong the northern districts of Kentucky, Tennessee, and other states, the greater part of which are too far south for suitable emigration fields, and which are unsuitable to British emigrants from the inveterate practice of slavery. Michigan, though not properly in the basin of the great river, may be considered geographically part of the same territory. The districts still farther west are the large territory called the Oregon, and the new government of Utah, elsewhere mentioned (p. 87.)

The central valley or rather plain, watered by the great rivers, has a certain uniformity in its majestic features. It is rather a plain than a valley, scarcely any part of it, even upwards of a thousand miles from the sea, rising more than 500 feet above its level. This, the largest alluvial tract probably in the world, is considered as stretching west of the slope of the Alleghany Mountains for 1500 miles, with a breadth, or rather as valleys are spoken of, a length of 600 miles from the lakes to the mouth of the Ohio. It is a horizontal limestone stratum, covered with a thick coating of earth rich in alluvium. As there can scarcely be said to be valleys in this region, the rivers, naturally deepening their courses as they proceed, cut a trench, as it were, so narrow as only to admit of the passage of their waters between banks which thus have an abrupt and rocky appearance. In this vast territory there are incalculable masses of forest, differing according to the latitude, from the predominating pine and birch, to the varied forest of oak, elm, walnut, sycamore, beech, hickory, maple, and tulip tree. There are strange peculiarities in the forest, sometimes running in straight belts through the wide prairie districts, and at others surrounding the prairie with a circular forest girdle,

-like the exaggeration of some park-opening in the artificial-domain lands of England.

The marvel, however, of this region, and of its great source of agricultural riches, are the prairies. It is unnecessary here to discuss the theories by which this peculiar formation is accounted for; it is sufficient to say, that it presents an alluvial surface capable of feeding a population larger than that of all Europe, and one on which, to all human appearance, immigrants may pour their numbers for a century to come without exhausting the field. Part of the district is perfectly flat, but in general its character is what is expressively called rolling—not lines of hills and valleys, but such circular mounds, with depressions between, as the bent-covered sands sometimes form along shelving coasts unprotected by rocks. The prairie is divided into the meadow and the weed class. The weeds are a growth of richly-coloured plants of infinite variety, making a compact thicket, sometimes eight or nine feet high. These are the tracts which produce, when set on fire, the wild scenes which we read of in the American romances, when man, the fiercer animals, and the gentler which form the prey of both, all flee in company. The strength of the growth on this kind of prairie attests its fertility. When burned, the weeds become a top-dressing, and the ground, if but scratched, will grow a crop. The districts most popular are not on the boundless prairie, where the eye sees no outline within the horizon, but where it is alternated with timber. Of such a country an acute observer says: 'The attraction of the prairie consists in its extent, its carpet of verdure and flowers, its undulating surface, its groves, and the fringe of timber by which it is surrounded. Of all these the latter is the most expressive feature; it is that which gives character to the landscape, which imparts the shape, and marks the boundary of the plain. If the prairie be small, its greatest beauty consists in the vicinity of the surrounding margin of woodland, which resembles the shore of a lake, indented with deep vistas like bays and inlets, and throwing out long points like capes and headlands; while occasionally these points approach so close on either hand, that the traveller passes through a narrow avenue or strait, where the shadows of the woodland fall upon his path, and then again emerges into another prairie.'—(*Notes on the Western States, by James Hall, p. 72.*)

Such are the lands of which an inexhaustible supply is to be obtained at the government fixed price of a dollar and a quarter an acre. Vast as the district is, its unvarying fertility leaves little of a distinguishing character to be stated about particular portions of it. Some of the prairies are wet, but their general character is dry, breezy, and healthy, the waters running in deep close ruts, or

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passing underground, so that the whole is naturally and effectively drained. Near the borders of the rivers, however, there is another kind of soil, which, by its extreme richness, tempts the settler to brave its insalubrity. It is of the character of alluvial deposit on flat and interrupted surfaces, and exists in large tracts at the lower parts of the Mississippi, yet is also found to a considerable extent in some of the higher, and in general more salubrious tracts. In an article in 'Hunt's Merchants' Magazine,' quoted by Mr Macgregor, there is this account of the 'Bottoms,' as they are termed:—

'These "bottoms" constitute the richest lands in the west. The soil is often twenty-five feet deep, and when thrown up from the digging of wells, produces luxuriantly the first year. The most extensive and fertile tract of this description of soil is what is called the "American Bottom," commencing at the mouth of the Kaskaskin, on the Mississippi, and extending northward to the bluffs at Alton, a distance of ninety miles. Its average width is five miles, and it contains about 288,000 acres. The soil is an argillaceous or a siliceous loam, according as clay or sand happens to predominate in its formation. This tract, which received its name when the Mississippi constituted the western boundary of the United States, is covered on the margin of the river with a strip of heavy timber, having a thick undergrowth, from half a mile to two miles in width, but from thence to the bluffs it is principally prairie. It is interspersed with sloughs, lakes, and ponds, the most of which become dry in autumn. The land is highest near the margin of the stream, and consequently, when overflowed, retains a large quantity of water, which is apt to stagnate and throw off miasma, rendering the air deleterious to health. The soil is, however, inexhaustibly productive. Seventy-five bushels of corn to the acre is an ordinary crop, and about the old French towns it has been cultivated, and produced successive crops of corn annually for more than one hundred years. Besides the American Bottom, there are others that resemble it in its general character. On the banks of the Mississippi there are many places where similar lands make their appearance, and also on the other rivers of the state. The bottoms of the Kaskaskia are generally covered with a heavy growth of timber, and are frequently inundated when the river is at its highest flood. Those of the Wabash are of various qualities, being less frequently submerged by the floods of the river as you ascend from its mouth. When not inundated, they are equal in fertility to the far-famed American Bottom, and in some instances are preferable, as they possess a soil less adhesive.

'These bottoms, especially the American, are the best regions in the United States for raising stock, particularly horses, cattle, and swine. The roots and worms of the soil, the acorns and other fruits from the trees, and the fish of the lakes, are sufficient to subsist and fatten the swine; and the horses and cattle find inexhaustible supplies of grass in the prairies and pea-vines, buffalo grass, wild oats,

and other herbage, in the timber in the summer, and rushes in the winter. The soil is not so well adapted to the production of wheat and other small grain as of Indian corn. They grow too rank, and fall down before the grain is sufficiently ripened to harvest. They are also all, or nearly all, subject to the very serious objection of being unhealthy.'

Though the prairie land is of a very uniform character, yet the states in which it is chiefly found require separate notice, on account of their other peculiarities.

Ohio is a rich enterprising state, with manufactures and public works. Its chief city, Cincinnati, which in 1810 had not 3000 inhabitants, has now upwards of 60,000. In this province it is stated in an American authority, that

'There is no elevation which deserves the name of a mountain in the whole state. The intervalle lands on the Ohio, and several of its tributaries, have great fertility. On both sides of the Scioto, and of the Great and Little Miami, are the most extensive bodies of rich and level land in the state. On the head-waters of the Muskingum and Scioto, and between the Scioto and the two Miami rivers, are extensive prairies, some of them low and marshy, producing a great quantity of coarse grass, from two to five feet high; other parts of the prairies are elevated and dry, with a very fertile soil, though they are sometimes called barrens. The height of land which divides the waters which fall into the Ohio from those which fall into Lake Erie, is the most marshy of any in the state; while the land on the margins of the rivers is generally dry. Among the forest trees are black walnut, oak of various species, hickory, maple of several kinds, beech, birch, poplar, sycamore, ash of several kinds, pawpaw, buckeye, cherry, and whitewood, which is extensively used as a substitute for pine. Wheat may be regarded as the staple production of the state, but Indian corn and other grains are produced in great abundance. Although Ohio has already become so populous, it is surprising to the traveller to observe what an amount of forest is yet unsubdued. . . .

'The summers are warm and pretty regular, but subject at times to severe drought. The winters are generally mild, but much less so in the northern than in the southern part of the state. Near Lake Erie the winters are probably as severe as in the same latitude on the Atlantic. In the country for fifty miles south of Lake Erie there are generally a number of weeks of good sleighing in the winter; but in the southern part of the state, the snow is too small in quantity, or of too short continuance, to produce good sleighing for any considerable time. In the neighbourhood of Cincinnati, green peas are produced in plenty by the 20th of May. In parts of the state near marshes and stagnant waters, fevers, and agues, and bilious and other fevers, are prevalent. With this exception, the climate of Ohio may be regarded as healthful.'—*U. S. Gazetteer*.

Illinois has some slightly hilly territory, and is partly covered with timber; but the prairie land greatly predominates. There are some rolling districts here, as in other prairie countries, which are honoured by old practice with the name of 'barrens.' This arose from an opinion, founded on the scrubby copsewood covering the soil, which has not been justified, since these tracts are among the most fertile, and at the same time most salubrious in the United States. There predominates at the same time in this state a species of land which the extreme richness of the soil is apt to tempt the settler to cultivate to the detriment of his health—the alluvial deposits called bottoms, already mentioned. Beef, pork, and poultry are raised in abundance in this state. The author of the article in *Hunt's Magazine*, cited above, says:

'The cultivated vegetable productions of the field are Indian corn, wheat, oats, barley, buckwheat, Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes, turnips, rye, tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, the castor bean, &c. Maize, or Indian corn, is the staple. No farmer can live without it, and may raise little else. It is cultivated with great ease; produces ordinarily fifty bushels to the acre; often seventy-five; and not unfrequently reaches to one hundred. Wheat is a good and sure crop, especially in the middle part of the state, and in a few years *Illinois* will probably send immense quantities to market. Hemp grows spontaneously, but is not extensively cultivated. Cotton is raised in the southern part of the state, and in 1840, 200,000 pounds were produced; 30,000 pounds of rice were gathered in the same year, and 2591 pounds of hops.'

Wisconsin and *Iowa* stretch far northwards, and join the British western territories, the former touching the great chain of lakes. A large portion of these tracts is unsurveyed and almost unexplored, but enterprise is rapidly advancing on them, and the new governmental territory of *Utah* was lately severed from the land vaguely divided between them. There are prairie lands in *Wisconsin*; but a great part of the country resembles the British American territory—is broken and rocky, with many torrents and wide forests. Of *Iowa*, Mr Macgregor says:

'The surface of the country is undulated, without mountains or high hills. There is a district of rather elevated table-land, which extends over a considerable part of the territory, dividing the waters which fall into the *Mississippi* from those which fall into the *Missouri*. The lands near the rivers and creeks, extending back from one to ten miles, are generally covered with timber; and farther back the country is an open prairie, without trees. By the frequent alternations of these two descriptions of land the face of the country is greatly diversified. The prairies occupy nearly three-fourths of the territory, and although they are destitute of trees, present a great variety in other respects. Some are level, and others are

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undulated; some are covered with a luxuriant grass, well suited for grazing; others are interspersed with hazel thickets and sassafras shrubs, and, in the proper season, decorated with beautiful flowers. The soil, both on the bottom and prairie land, is generally good, consisting of a deep black mould, intermixed in the prairies with sandy loam, and sometimes with a red clay and gravel. The cultivated productions are Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, pumpkins, melons, and all kinds of garden vegetables. The soil and climate are favourable to the cultivation of fruit. Wild crab-apples, plums, strawberries, and grapes, are abundant.

Missouri, reaching no farther north than $40^{\circ} 36'$, and stretching southwards below the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi nearly to the 36th parallel, is more tropical in its character than Wisconsin, Iowa, and Michigan. It contains a considerable portion of the species of land which is the most productive, but at the same time the most unhealthy.

'This state presents a great variety of surface and of soil. Alluvial or bottom soil extends along the margin of the rivers; receding from which the land rises in some parts imperceptibly, in others very abruptly, into elevated barrens, or rocky ridges. In the interior, bottoms and barrens, naked hills and prairies, heavy forests and streams of water, may often be seen at one view, presenting a diversified and beautiful landscape. The south-east part of the state has a very extensive tract of low, marshy country, abounding in lakes, and liable to inundation. Back of this a hilly country extends as far as the Osage River. This portion of the state, though not generally distinguished for the fertility of its soil, though it is interspersed with fertile portions, is particularly celebrated for its mineral treasures.'—(*United States Gazetteer*.—*Macgregor's Statistics*.)

Indiana has Michigan Lake and state on the north, Ohio on the east, Illinois on the west, and Kentucky on the south. It is in the centre of the prairie district, salubrious, and furnished with great facilities for the exportation of its produce by the Ohio, which washes the southern border, and the Wabash, which runs for 120 miles along its western.

'There are no mountains in Indiana. The country bordering on the Ohio is hilly and undulated. A range of hills runs parallel with the Ohio from the mouth of the Great Miami to Blue River, alternately approaching to within a few rods, and receding to the distance of two miles. Immediately below Blue River the hills disappear, and then a large tract of level land succeeds, covered with a heavy growth of timber. Bordering on all the principal streams except the Ohio, there are strips of bottom and prairie land from three to six miles in width. Remote from the rivers the country is broken, and the soil light. Between the Wabash and Lake Michigan the country is generally level, interspersed with woodlands, prairies,

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lakes, and swamps. The shore of this state, which extends along the southern end of Lake Michigan, is lined with sandhills about 200 feet high; behind which there are sandy hillocks, on and between which grow some pine and a few other trees. The prairies bordering on the Wabash are rich, having ordinarily an excellent vegetable soil from two to five feet deep. The natural growth of this soil consists of several kinds of oak, ash, beech, buckeye, walnut, cherry, maple, elm, sassafras, linden, honeylocust, cottonwood, sycamore, and mulberry. The principal productions are wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, buckwheat, barley, potatoes, beef, pork, butter, cheese, &c.—(*United States Gazetteer*.—*Macgregor's Statistics*.)

Mandan is the name of the district on the upper waters of the Missouri as they turn westward, lying to the west of the states Illinois and Wisconsin, bordered on the north by the nominal boundary of the British North American territories, and stretching westward to the Rocky Mountains. It is understood to comprise an area of 600,000 square miles. Erelong the tide of immigration will doubtless pour into this district, and it will be provided with a temporary government previous to its becoming a representative state. It will be in one of the great highways of America, as it opens on the only pass through the Rocky Mountains which is believed to be sufficiently gradual for the bed of a road. 'The surface is chiefly an elevated plain or tableland, consisting of vast prairies, on which large herds of the bison, elk, and deer range; and though the soil is generally light and thin, it affords abundant grass and herbage for their support, and is undoubtedly capable of supporting an equal number of domestic cattle.'—*United States Gazetteer*. Until within the past few years this territory was inhabited by a powerful tribe of Indians; but they were almost entirely exterminated by the smallpox, and their scattered remnant are resorting to the neighbouring territory set apart for the Indian tribes.

Oregon and Utah Territories.—These comprise the district on the west of the Rocky Mountains sloping towards the Pacific, and comprehended between the 49th parallel—which has been declared to be the boundary of the British possessions—and New Mexico and California on the south. Oregon is the northern division; and though not yet a state in the Union, it has a delegate to Congress. Utah, separated from it at the 42d parallel, was only incorporated into a state with a government in 1850 (see p. 87.) We are here in a land as new to the civilised world as New Zealand. From time to time the public have been interested in the narratives of daring adventurers—generally hunters, who, urged by the spirit of their craft, have left behind them the

southern prairies and the 'meat,' as they call the buffaloes and other animals hunted and trapped by them—and have undergone the horrors of a journey over the Rocky Mountains in search of new regions, or perhaps to open the way for half-marauding expeditions against the Spaniards of the south. For a characteristic account of such expeditions, a reference may be made to the animated little work of Mr Ruxton. Space cannot be afforded on the present occasion for any account of the more important experiment of Mr Astor, or the expeditions from time to time made by the western coast, as well as the Rocky Mountains, to this district. The progress of the American people westward and southward has suddenly changed its position, and made it a place of considerable importance among the districts likely to be occupied by emigrants. For sometime it will probably be almost exclusively sought by the adventurous citizens of the states; but when our own emigrants are called on to look to Vancouver Island as an eligible place of settlement, it is not extravagant to suppose that this great tract of varied capabilities will compete with it. Many of the disappointed British adventurers in California—perhaps some of those few who have succeeded in carrying away a small capital—may find that Oregon lies conveniently to them as a place of settlement. The communication to be soon opened across the Isthmus of Darien will bring it within the list of places easily approached both from the United States and Britain. There are supposed to be from 40,000 to 60,000 Indians in the territory, who were lately powerful and independent; but though not, properly speaking, subdued, they are scarcely numerous enough to render the place dangerous to the white settler. The country is divided into three valleys or regions by two ranges of hills, between the Rocky Mountains and the coast.

'The distance from the coast to the nearest chain is, in some places, 100 miles; in others much less. The intervening country is crossed in various directions by low ridges connected with the principal chain, some of them parallel to it, and others stretching toward the ocean. From this region the Wallamette River comes more than 200 miles, in a direction nearly due north, and enters the Columbia on its south side. The valley through which it passes is said to be the most delightful and fertile in north-western America. The climate of the region between the ocean and the first range, though not unhealthy, is not very favourable to agriculture. The summer is warm and dry. From April to October, while the westerly winds prevail, rain seldom falls in any part of Oregon; during the other months, when the south wind blows constantly, the rains are almost incessant in the lower region, though sometimes the dry season continues there longer. Further from the Pacific, the rains are less frequent and abundant; and near the Rocky Mountains they are

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reduced to a few showers in the spring. In the valleys of the low country snow is rarely seen, and the ground is so little frozen that ploughing may generally be done during the whole winter. Most of the productions of the northern states, excepting Indian corn, succeed tolerably well. Horses and neat cattle will subsist without fodder through the winter. The second bottoms of the rivers, being above inundation, are extremely fertile, and prairies are considerably numerous and extensive. The forests on the uplands, although the soil is tolerably good, abound with such enormous trees as almost to defy cultivation. A fir-tree growing near Astoria, on the Columbia, eight miles from the sea, was 46 feet in circumference, ten feet from the ground, and 153 feet in length before giving off a single branch, and not less than 300 feet in its whole height. Another tree of the same species, on the banks of the Umqua, was 57 feet in circumference, and 216 feet in length below its branches; and sound pines from 200 to 280 feet in height, and from 20 to 40 feet in circumference, are not uncommon.

The middle region of Oregon, between the mountains nearest the coast and the Blue Mountains on the east, is more elevated and dry, and less fertile than the low country. It consists chiefly of plains, between ridges of mountains, the soil of which is generally a yellow sandy clay, covered with grass, small shrubs, and prickly pears. Timber is very scarce; the trees are of soft and useless woods, such as cotton-wood, sumach, and willow, which are found only in the neighbourhood of streams.

The climate is salubrious, the air is dry in summer, the days warm, and the nights cool. The rain begins later and ends sooner than in the lower country. This country is poorly adapted to cultivation, but is well suited to grazing, the grass being abundant in a green or dry state through the year. Horses are here reared in abundance by the Indians, some of whom own hundreds of them. The Blue Mountains on the east of this region extend through the whole territory of the Columbia, though frequently broken into several ridges. These mountains are steep, with a volcanic appearance, and their highest peaks are covered with perpetual snow.

The third and last division of Oregon lies between the Blue Mountains on the west and the Rocky Mountains on the east. The southern part of this region is a desert of steep rocky mountains, deep narrow valleys, and wide plains, covered with sand and gravel. There is little snow in the valleys in the winter, but much on the mountains. It rarely rains, and no dew falls. The difference between the temperature at sunrise and at noon in summer is often forty degrees.—(*U. S. Gaz.*)

SOUTHERN STATES.

The reasons have been already given for not considering these states—rich, fertile, and important though they be—as a suitable

emigration field for British agriculturists or mechanics (see p. 80.) The old southern states have been in some measure laid open for new settlers by the adventurers who have wandered to California, or the other western settlements. If English capitalists should think fit to invest in the cleared farms and estates which are thus brought to market, the state of Maryland might be suggested as the most suitable. It is the farthest north of the slave states; and though on the lower banks of the Chesapeake there is much unhealthy swamp, the upper districts are comparatively salubrious. The social condition of the country is subject to the moral influence of the northern states, and slavery has been decreasing.

A perusal of the works of Kennedy and others, who have examined the resources of the new province of Texas, can leave no doubt that it possesses great capabilities for agricultural production. It is maintained, too, by the American political economists, that the stain of slavery cannot be permanently attached to it, as its agricultural character marks it as a district suited only for free labour. With so many other fields open to him, however, the cautious British emigrant will avoid Texas, until its character as a country for settlement be better cleared up. Choosing a settlement is not like joining a speculation, where the chances of success consist in being first in the field. The adaptability of this territory is so doubtful, that the Emigration Commissioners, going out of their usual path, thought it necessary, in their circular for 1850, to issue the following caution:—'Emigrants are warned that the statements recently circulated respecting the salubrity of climate, the fertility of soil, and the richness of the mineral productions of Texas, are reported by authority to be greatly exaggerated, and that the commissioners have received information that some British subjects, who were recently induced by an association in this country to emigrate to Texas, have fallen into great distress.'

It may be expected that something should be said of California. This is, however, a work intended for the quiet settler seeking a new home, where health, freedom, and legal protection are to accompany the prospect of his finding a comfortable subsistence for his family. California is, by the admission even of its best supporters, as yet a place for adventurous men to flock to and make fortunes; departing as soon as they can, and bringing with them their gains, if they have made any. The disinterested adviser must add to this, that, with all the hardships and risks to be encountered, the harvest is by no means certain: it is an affair of desperate gambling chances. Some fortunes—not many—have no doubt been made in the scramble, while multitudes

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have fled from the scene disappointed and ruined men. But in time, even the rapid gains of the lucky few will cease, and the gold-mining will be, as it is elsewhere, a hard business, requiring much capital, and making a steady but poor return. If gold were long found in lumps, it would soon cease to be the universal representative of value. It has acquired that position just because, more than any other commodity, it is the representative of value given by labour in its production. There are great fluctuations in other commodities, but the supply of gold is always, with only minute occasional oscillations, steady, and incapable of increase, without the continued application of capital and labour to its extraction. In a place like California, where its existence has been newly discovered by an active, impatient, energetic people, all the surface capabilities are immediately attacked. Nature has been mining away for some time, disintegrating the metal from the rock, and scattering it about; and all this produce is pounced upon; and it is supposed that gold will be as easily obtained in the district for ever. The peculiarity of this metal, however, is—that it runs in thin tortuous veins through hard quartz rocks; and when the superficial scatterings have been removed, and the metal is got by mining, it will, to all appearance, be as little profitable a pursuit in California as in the old mines.

PURCHASE AND EMPLOYMENT OF LAND.

The emigrant to any of the British possessions is greatly perplexed by the complex systems for the disposal of land. There are scarcely two colonies where it is alike. It is in almost all of them full of minute rules and restrictions, and these are frequently altered and readjusted. In some of them, the high uniform-price system has been adopted; and then, as this proved virtually inoperative, from people squatting in the out-districts instead of buying land, it became necessary to form a distinct system of tenures to apply to them. In some colonies, the arrangements are fixed by the home government; in others, they are variable, according to the views of the colonial authorities. The advantages of a uniform and simple system have been well illustrated in the United States.

The system for the survey and sale of the public lands was adopted by act of Congress in 1785, and has virtually remained unaltered in its general features. Before being offered for sale, all unoccupied lands are surveyed in ranges of townships, each six miles square. The township is subdivided into thirty-six

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sections, each one mile square, and containing about 640 acres. The subdivision is made by lines crossing each other from east to west, and north to south. The sections are numbered from 1 to 36. The enumeration commences at the north-east corner, and runs west; the next row being counted from west to east, and so on alternately. The sections are farther subdivided into quarters of 160 acres, eighths of eighty, and sixteenths of forty. The surveyors put up distinct marks in the field for indicating the corners of the townships, the sections, and the quarter sections.

When lands have been surveyed, they are proclaimed by the president as for sale by public auction. The upset price per acre is 1 dollar 25 cents, or $1\frac{1}{4}$ dollar, equal to about 5s. 3d. When the land is not sold at the auction sale, it is 'subject to private entry,' as it is termed, and may be claimed by any one paying the upset price. It would appear that not much of the land sells for more than the upset price, or what does sell brings little more, as the whole produce of the land-sales seldom greatly exceeds an average of a dollar and a quarter per acre during the year. Thus in 1848 the lands disposed of amounted in acres to 1,887,553. At the upset price, the whole would have brought 2,359,441 dollars. The actual produce-money was 2,621,615 dollars. The annual quantity of land sold can hardly be said to increase progressively like the immigration. It must be subject to peculiar influences, occasionally contracting as well as enlarging it. The rush on California might perhaps have an influence on it. The acres of land sold in 1847 exceeded 2,500,000. The previous year shews a smaller amount; it does not much exceed 2,250,000. In 1845 the amount comes down to the level it had descended to in 1848, and is even slightly under it. In going backwards there are four years in which it vibrates between 1,250,000 and 2,000,000. In 1840 the level of 2,250,000 had been slightly exceeded. But this was in the course of descent from a sort of climax in land-sales reached in 1836. In 1839 the amount was close on 5,000,000, and the sum realised equal to £1,346,782 sterling. The previous year it had been under 3,500,000, but in 1837 it was more than 5,500,000, and realised £1,459,900 sterling. In the wonderful year 1836, however, the quantity of land sold was 20,074,870 acres, realising £5,063,297 sterling. In the preceding year the land-sales were a little more than 12,500,000. In 1834 they had been nearer the point to which they have since descended, and were considerably under 5,000,000.

In the North American Almanac for 1850 there is a document instructive as to the proportional rate at which the lands after they are surveyed find purchasers. It appears to go over a space

of thirty years, and applies to each individual state. The result of the whole is this: at the commencement of the period, the lands offered for sale in the manner mentioned above amounted in acres to 154,680,234. Of these it appears that there were sold within ten years 44,133,590. After the expiry of the ten, but before that of a farther five years, there were sold in addition 17,706,023 acres. In the next period the sales were 8,730,823. In the next quinquennial period—between twenty and twenty-five years—the sales were 3,691,067. In the concluding quinquennial period of the thirty years the sales were 2,371,757. There remained at the end of the thirty years of the lands surveyed at the commencement—without reference of course to the sale of lands surveyed before or after—78,046,074 acres.

In the papers presented to the British parliament for 1849, on the revenue and statistics of the various countries of the world, there is a statement of the public lands remaining unsold in the several states on 30th June 1845. It may be remarked, that though the statement be upwards of five years old the sales that have since taken place would not very materially reduce the total amount; and there is no doubt that the great accessions of territory have caused a vast extent of new surveys. The acres in the market, and unsold, were then 133,307,457—equal to about four times the area of England not counting Wales. This territory there had stood over for more than thirty years—acres—nearly half of them in the Mississippi. For between twenty-five and thirty years there had stood over 15,178,826, and for more than twenty, and not more than twenty-five years, there had stood over 21,185,596. These results are not to be confounded with those of the previous calculations from the tables in the American Almanac, since these refer to all existing surveys at the time—the others gave the history of the progress of purchase on the survey presented for sale in one particular year.

A conception may be formed, from these numbers, how vastly and infinitely available are the fresh lands of this great empire. There stands at one time surveyed, and ready for sale, as much land as, were it peopled as thickly as England, would contain a population equal to double that of the United Kingdom; and these lands are independent of the unoccupied tracts in the hands of individuals. Yet surveying is a costly operation, not to be needlessly undertaken; and, as we shall presently see, only a small proportion of the lands ultimately available are brought within it. It may be interesting to observe the proportions in which the unsold area is dispersed over the several states. The enumeration does not include the new territories, nor the following old territories—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode

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The result of the lands sold in acres within the year before that 17,706,023. In the next year—the period of sale—was obtained at the commencement of the year—lands surveyed

for 1849, on the part of the world, was sold in the year marked, that the sales that year were the total of the territory of acres—fifty-five acres, and for the year, there had been confounded in the American surveys at the purchase on

how vastly great the empire. The sale, as much as could contain a man; and these were the hands of the people to be needed—only a small part within it. In which the unenumeration of the old territories, Rhode

Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky. It contains, however, the southern states, which are not recommended as suitable emigration fields. In the several states where there were public lands for disposal, the acres were respectively—Ohio, 885,767; Indiana, 3,729,859; Illinois, 15,830,348; Missouri, 20,798,089; Alabama, 16,970,927; Mississippi, 10,409,034; Louisiana, 12,412,029; Michigan, 14,611,524; Arkansas, 19,046,589; Florida, 10,317,954; Iowa, 2,558,252; Wisconsin, 5,737,085.

In looking from the amount of surveyed land to the new territories lately opened up to the progress of immigration north and west of the organised states of the Union, we come to still broader and more comprehensive masses of figures. It may here be remarked, that in their statistics the Americans carefully separate the districts naturally to be counted among the northern states, and the more fit places for the British emigrant, from those appertaining to the south—the line being at 36° 30' north latitude. In the first place, then, there is the north-west territory, bounded on the north by the British-American dominions, or by the 49th parallel; on the east by the Mississippi; on the south by the state of Iowa and the Platte River; and on the west by the Rocky Mountains. It contains 462,878,720 acres, equal to 723,248 square miles—nearly six times the area of the United Kingdom. The next is the Wisconsin territory—not that of the old state, but the newly-acquired territory lying between it and the Mississippi, and on the east of that river. This 'balance of the old north-western territory,' as the Americans call it, contains 22,336 square miles—equal to 14,295,040 acres. These are all in the districts constituting extensions of the old territory, and in the northern department available for emigration. There is, besides, in the extension districts, a tract of nearly 200 square miles—partly in the northern, partly in the southern division, 'called the Indian Territory, 'situated west of the states of Missouri and Arkansas, and south of the Platte or Nebraska River, held and apportioned in part for Indian purposes.'

We now come to the newly-ceded or acquired districts. The area of Oregon is 341,463 square miles, or 218,536,320 acres—not much less than three times the area of the United Kingdom. All this is of course in the northern division. The next territory is Upper California and New Mexico, bounded on the north by the 42d parallel; on the east by the Rio Grande, and by a meridian line from its source to the 42d parallel; on the south by the middle of the Gila River, from the source to the mouth, and thence by a line to a point one marine league south from the

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southernmost point of the port of San Diego, and west by the Pacific Ocean. This territory is divided between the north and south department. In the former there are 321,695 square miles, or 205,884,800 acres; in the latter, 204,383 square miles, or 130,805,120 acres. The state of Texas is generally considered in three divisions. The first is Texas Proper, between the Sabine and Nueces Rivers, and south of the Ensenada. This is entirely in the southern department, covering 148,569 square miles. The mean division is described as bounded 'between the Nueces and Rio Grande Rivers, up to a line drawn from a point a short distance north of the town of Paso, to the source of the Ensenada River, and along the river to its mouth.' The whole of this also, covering 52,018 square miles, is in the southern department. The third division, or Santa Fé Country, is that situated north of Paso and Ensenada River, and stretching to latitude 42° north. This is partly in the northern and partly in the southern department. In the former there are 43,537 square miles, or 27,863,680 acres; in the latter, 81,396 square miles. The great stretches of country which we have now gone over are, it will be observed, those available beyond the boundary of the regularly organised states—the quantity of land surveyed and available in which was previously noticed.

The uniform price of the dollar and quarter applies of course to the territories actually admitted within the Union, or provided by act of Congress with a temporary government. But if the adventurous settler, proposing to take up his position in a new district which is not, though it is likely to be marked out as a state, it is important to him to know what position he acquires, and what land-title he holds. It is clear that, on the one hand, it would be incompatible that these squatters should be entitled to hold in property all the land they may claim as theirs before the establishment of a regular government; and, on the other hand, that it would be unjust to deprive them of all title unless they paid the States price of a dollar and quarter per acre. Hence on the incorporation of any state with the Union, careful provision is made for an equitable settlement of the land-claims of the squatters, which are adjusted by an important officer called the Surveyor-general of Public Lands. Such a measure was passed by Congress in 1850, called, 'An Act to create the Office of Surveyor-general of the Public Lands in Oregon, and to provide for the Survey, and to make donations to the Settlers of the said Public Lands.' It does not require actual citizenship of the States, but extends to all who will make a declaration, before 1st December 1851, of an intention to become citizens. It includes those residing in the territory at the passing of the act, or who have gone to it before 1st December

1850. The title to fixity of tenure is four years' settlement and cultivation. To each person having such an equitable claim, upwards of eighteen years of age there is awarded one-half section of 320 acres, if he be a single man; and if he be married, a section of 640 acres—one-half becoming the absolute property of his wife. If an alien make the declaration of intention to become a citizen, but die before he is actually naturalised, his representatives succeed to his allotment. Persons settling between 1st December 1850 and 1st December 1853, acquire rights to half as much as those who have settled earlier, under the like conditions. To prevent land-jobbing, an oath is taken by the settler that the land claimed by him is for his own use and cultivation—that he is not acting as agent for another in making the claim—and that he has made no bargain for disposing of the land to a purchaser. Taking this oath falsely is a punishable offence; but how far the law would be enforced must depend on circumstances. The claims of representatives, whether by law or settlement, are admitted from the beginning; but no sale is held valid anterior to the issuing of the patent.

The waste lands held in property by the United States by no means comprise the whole of the uncleared or waste lands within the States. In those states where there are no public lands at all, there are abundant tracts of waste land in the possession of individuals or companies; but a question of great importance to the agricultural emigrant must necessarily be, whether he will reclaim waste land, or invest in land already cleared and cultivated? The British emigrant, if he resolve to turn himself to waste land, should choose the dry rolling prairie.

The life of the backwoodsman is one of peculiar danger and hardship. It is not necessarily unhealthy; but the causes of disease are so peculiar and subtle, that the stranger will not readily understand or discover them; while the American is to a certain extent acclimated to their influence, and can bear them better. The first steps towards clearing the forest may be considered as already described in the account of British America (see p. 31.) Of the farther steps after the felling and burning, Mr Macgregor, with peculiar reference to the United States, gives, in his 'Progress of America,' the following account:—

'The surface of the ground and the remaining wood is all black and charred; and working on it, and preparing the soil for seed, is as disagreeable at first as any labour in which a man can be engaged. Men, women, and children, must however employ themselves in gathering and burning the rubbish, and in such parts of labour as their respective strengths adapt them for. If the ground be intended for grain, it is generally sown without tillage over the surface, and the seed covered in with a hoe. By some a triangular harrow,

which shortens labour, is used instead of the hoe, and drawn by oxen. Others break up the earth with a one-handed plough—the old Dutch plough—which has the share and coulter locked into each other, drawn also by oxen, while a man attends with an axe to cut the roots in its way. Little regard is paid in this case to make straight furrows, the object being no more than to break up the ground. With such rude preparation, however, three successive good crops are raised on fertile uplands without any manure; interval lands, being fertilised by irrigation, never require any. Potatoes are planted (in new lands) in round hollows, scooped with the hoe four or five inches deep, and about forty in circumference, in which three or five sets are planted and covered over with a hoe. Indian corn, pumpkins, cucumbers, peas and beans, are cultivated in new lands, in the same manner as potatoes. Grain of all kinds, turnips, hemp, flax, and grass-seeds, are sown over the surface, and covered by means of a hoe, rake, or triangular harrow; wheat is usually sown on the same ground the year after potatoes, without any tillage, but merely covering the seed with a rake or harrow, and followed the third year by oats. Some farmers, and it is certainly a prudent plan, sow timothy and clover seed the second year along with the wheat, and afterwards let the ground remain under grass until the stumps of the trees can be easily got out, which usually requires three or four years. With a little additional labour these obstructions to ploughing might be removed the second year, and there appears little difficulty in constructing a machine on the lever principle, that would readily remove them at once. The roots of beech, birch, and spruce, decay the soonest: those of pine and hemlock seem to require an age. After the stumps are removed from the soil, and those small natural hillocks, called “cradle hills,” caused by the ground swelling near the roots of trees in consequence of their growth, are levelled, the plough may always be used, and the system of husbandry followed that is most approved of in England or Scotland.’

The subsequent steps are of a more cheerful character—

‘Wherever a settlement is formed amidst the woodlands, and some progress is made in the clearing and cultivation of the soil, it begins gradually to develop the usual features of an American village. First, a saw-mill, a grist-mill, and a blacksmith’s shop, appear; then a school-house and a place of worship; and in a little time the village doctor and pedlar with his wares introduce themselves.

‘A saw-mill of itself soon forms a settlement, for attached to it must be a blacksmith’s forge, dwellings for carpenters, millwrights, and labourers, stables, and ox-houses. A shop and tavern are also sure to spring up close to it; tailors and shoemakers are also required.’

But notwithstanding the wonderful rapidity with which the untrodden wilderness is converted into smiling fields, orchards, villages, and even cities, the British emigrant, before he joins in

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the task, should consider whether he is well fitted for it. To the American citizen, clearing the wilderness is the occupation which nature seems to have assigned to him. Even if he have not actually been trained to it, it is a lot which has become familiar to him in his thoughts. The American farmer sells his holding, goes off into the forest, and says to his brawny sons, 'Now, lads, clear away!' as coolly as the English shopkeeper moves to a better street and more roomy premises. An insatiable restlessness pervades the class, and many of them feel an irresistible propensity to dispose of their lands when they have cleared them, and begin the work again. It is said to be rare to find an American who will not part with his farm or estate if a sufficient consideration be put in his option. This restlessness affords good opportunities for the British emigrant investing in cleared land. There are always lots in abundance to be obtained, of every variety of class and extent. 'The partially cleared ground,' says Mr Prentice in his *Tour in the United States*, 'may be had at a comparatively cheap rate. The current of population flows towards the prairie land of Indiana and Illinois; and numbers of men there are who will abandon their improvements if they can sell an acre of land at a price which would purchase four or five acres of the tempting prairies of the west. This affords an excellent opportunity to the agricultural immigrant from the old country. He can buy cleared land cheaper than he can clear it: he can have a house and cattle-sheds ready for use; fields ready to yield him produce; and he will escape the fever and ague which pertinaciously follow the breaker of fresh ground' (p. 31.) The price of cleared land is infinitely varied, according to the situation and productiveness of the soil. Some areas of cleared land may be bought out and out at £2 an acre; while there are others that would not be obtained on lease for double that amount of rent. It is only in general close to the cities, or in peculiarly rich bottoms, as they are called, that field after field in succession is cleared. When a property is for sale, a large part of it is generally uncultivated. Very often the cleared land is exhausted by overcropping and the want of artificial manuring. The American plan is rather to go to new land than to improve and foster the old. It is remarked that both his propensity and his qualification is for clearing and bringing in, while that of the Englishman is for cultivating and enriching; and hence it is often considered a wise division of labour for each to follow his particular bent.

The British farmer almost invariably censures the slovenliness of the American, and holds up his scanty produce per acre as a lasting reproach. But there are reasons for the one pushing the

resources of the land to the utmost which do not exist with the other; and the agriculturist of Norfolk or the Lothians will need to pause before he follow up his high-farming system in the Atlantic states because he has found that it pays best at home.

The controversy between the systems of farming has been conducted with a kind of professional pedantry. On one side, as if agriculture were one of the fine arts, and its object were to produce clean fields and follow a learned rotation of cropping. The object of agriculture is to raise the greatest quantity of produce with the least expenditure of capital and labour, and it is quite natural that the farmer in the old country should find it most economical to manure, irrigate, or eat off with turnips, while the American finds it best to move on to fresh fields. There are other elements which make the agriculture of Britain in a great measure inapplicable to the United States, and render it necessary that the agricultural emigrant should abandon all prepossessions, and adapt himself to the different character of his materials. In a work of great authority on the spot, called 'American Husbandry,' by Willis Gaylor and George Tucker, New York—who think that American farmers are only too apt to follow the precedents of established British culture—there are the following explanations of the American peculiarities, particularly of climate:—

'Population, by justifying, or rather compelling English farmers to adopt peculiar systems of farming, may be said to create a wider difference between the agriculture of the two countries than any arising from the soil.

'But it is to climate that the principal points of difference in the agriculture of the two countries must be traced; and this is what should be kept most distinctly in view when comparisons between English agriculture and our own are instituted. England, though in the latitude, and most of it north of Quebec, has a milder climate than our middle states; and this fact should not be lost sight of in adapting the agriculture of that country to this. In the United States (we speak particularly now of the northern and middle states, as it is these that are more influenced by English agriculture than the south), the summers are much hotter and the winters much colder than in England: hence some plants that require a great degree of heat will succeed better here than there; while many plants will bear the winters of England in the open air, that perish when exposed without protection to the intense cold of our winter months. A great number of thermometrical observations show that the average temperature of the three months of January, February, and March in England, is about 37°, 42°, and 47°, and that of the three months of June, July, and August, about 63°, 66°, and 65°. The average difference between the highest and the lowest temperature per month will not exceed more than 6° or 8°, those sudden and

extreme changes to which our climate is subject being unknown there. In the valley of the Genessee, near Lake Ontario, the average for the three winter months gives about 24° , 26° , and 36° , and for the three summer months, 71° , 73° , and 72° ; the mean average of several years is 49° , and the range of the thermometer about 100° . In this country we have changes of from 30° to 40° in twenty-four hours: there the greatest rarely exceeds 6° or 8° . There, also, the thermometer seldom descends but a few degrees below the freezing-point, while here it is below for weeks or months together. Indeed it is probable that, in the colder parts of the United States, the thermometer falls below zero as often as it does in England below 32° .

'This statement will shew that there must be a material difference between the agricultural operations proper to two countries so situated, as far as those operations can be affected by climate. To give a single instance: Indian corn, it is ascertained, cannot be grown in any country where the thermometer, for more than one month, is not above 70° ; and that in a temperature of 75° , or 80° , it arrives at its greatest perfection. This is the reason why, notwithstanding all the efforts made to introduce [Indian] corn into Great Britain, it has proved a complete failure. It is not killed with the frost there as here; but the degree of heat will not bring it to maturity during the summer months. Mr Cobbett was confident he should succeed, and did grow some tolerable crops of early Canadian; but, like some trees which flourish and mature their seeds here, but will not ripen in England, the corn would not in all cases mature so as to vegetate, and, in spite of his boastings, he was compelled to abandon the culture. On the contrary, wheat is a crop that requires a lower temperature than maize, and is not adapted to a hot, dry climate. Great Britain is, therefore, one of the best wheat countries on the globe, and perhaps produces, in proportion to the land in tillage, a greater amount than any other. The low temperature and moist climate of England is found to agree with this plant perfectly. Scotland is too cold; but no part of the island is too hot, as is the case with a considerable portion of our southern states.

'To this difference of climate must be attributed the difficulty we have found in the United States in growing hedges from such shrubs or trees as are used in England for this purpose. From witnessing their excellent effect and beautiful appearance there, it was perfectly natural that we should adopt the same plants for the same object here; but after the repeated and persevering efforts of fifty years, it may be questioned whether there are five miles of tolerable hedge, from imported varieties of thorn or holly plants, in the United States. The difference between the moist, temperate, and equable climate of England, and the hot, dry, variable climate of this country, seems to have been overlooked, when a recollection of this fact would have convinced any one acquainted with the physiology of plants that our seasons must be fatal to English hedges. Whether there are any of our native plants that will supply this desideratum remains to be seen.'

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It will be seen already in our notices of Mr Johnston's recent work on North America, that along with other British agriculturists he censures the wastefulness of the American system under which 'the land has been in many places ploughed fifty years without any manure.' Still there is no answering the native farmer or the settler who, in exhausting one tract of land and then passing on to crop another either in his immediate vicinity or on the other side of the Rocky Mountains, finds that it is the most remunerative system. Mr Johnston's remarks on the subject are, however, of the highest importance, when we look from the immediate prospects of the settler or agriculturist to the future prospects of the great western empire, and their influence on this country. He seems to think—and he is perhaps correct—that the peculiar restlessness of the States' citizens, prompting them ever to change their place of residence, makes them sometimes miscalculate their real interest, just as the English husbandman does by obstinately sticking to one spot. He looks upon this propensity as likely to interrupt the ultimate productive progress of the States, deeming that their prospects for future productiveness would be better if the error were on the other side, and people made sacrifices in improving their holdings instead of shifting to new ground. Observing that many old exporting districts in North America require to import wheat, he says very emphatically.

'The same consummation is preparing for the more newly settled parts, unless a change of system take place. The new wheat-exporting—so called—granary districts and states will by and by gradually lessen in number and extent, and probably lose altogether the ability to export, unless when unusual harvests occur. And if the population of North America continue to advance at its present rapid rate—especially in the older states of the Union—if large mining and manufacturing populations spring up, the ability to export wheat to Europe will lessen still more rapidly. This diminution may be delayed for a time by the rapid settling of new western states, which, from their virgin soils, will draw easy returns of grain; but every step westward adds to the cost of transporting produce to the Atlantic border, while it brings it nearer to that far western California, which, as some predict, will in a few years afford an ample market for all the corn and cattle which the western states can send it.' He adds, 'in their relation to English markets, therefore, and the prospects and profits of the British farmer, my persuasion is, that, year by year, our transatlantic cousins will become less and less able—except in extraordinary seasons—to send large supplies of wheat to our island ports; and that, when the virgin freshness shall have been rubbed off their new lands, they will be unable, *with their present knowledge and methods*, to send wheat to

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the British market so cheap as the more skilful farmers of Great Britain and Ireland can do. If any one less familiar with practical agriculture doubts that such must be the final effect of the exhausting system now followed on all the lands of North America, I need only inform him that the celebrated Lothian farmers, in the immediate neighbourhood of Edinburgh, who carry all their crops off the land—as the North American farmers now do—return, on an average, ten tons of well-rotted manure every year to every acre, while the American farmer returns nothing. If the Edinburgh farmer finds this quantity necessary to keep his land in condition, that of the American farmer must go out of condition, and produce inferior crops in a time which will bear a relation to the original richness of the soil, and to the weight of crop it has been in the habit of producing. And when this exhaustion has come, a more costly system of generous husbandry must be introduced, if the crops are to be kept up; and in this more generous system my belief is that the British farmers will have the victory.

EMIGRANTS.

It will naturally be expected that the emigrant who throws himself on a foreign state will be left more to his own resources, and receive less protection and attention than the colonial settler, who merely passes from one department of the empire to another, still remaining within the circuit of its laws. It was but lately, however, that our colonial governments took any pains to smooth the wanderer's path; and the arrangements made for the reception of emigrants in New York, and other great reception-ports in the United States, are not much inferior to those which our own colonial government has made. Partly the stranger is aided by the several societies for the protection of emigrants—generally consisting of citizens who have been natives of the British Empire. The governments of the States, however, have acted on the sound principle, that they have a great interest in the matter. Able-bodied, healthy immigrants are an infusion of new blood to them. Helpless wrecks of humanity are a corresponding encumbrance, since no civilised community can systematically permit human beings to die on their streets.

At the entrance of the port of New York there is an immigrant hospital with more than a thousand beds, airing-grounds exceeding thirty acres, and a suitable medical staff. There the sick, chiefly from ship-fever, are at once landed, without entering the city. The excellence of the treatment is attested by the circumstance, that in 1847 the deaths among 6932 patients admitted

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amounted to 847, or 12½ per cent.* The medical institutions for the reception of immigrants have been from time to time lately enlarged. The system is in some measure supported by the payment of the tax on passengers, to be immediately mentioned, which gives them a title to admission. But this is insufficient to meet all the expense of the system, part of which is borne by the state.

Before the year 1847, the masters of vessels required to give bond that their immigrants should not become chargeable on the charitable institutions of the country for two years after their arrival. This was found ineffective, however, as the parties could not always be reached with responsibility, and in 1847 the plan of laying a tax on immigrants was adopted. This was again altered by a law of the state in 1849, and an alternative principle adopted. By this act, within twenty-four hours after the landing, the master of the vessel must make a report of his passengers, stating their age, occupation, and other particulars. He is liable to severe penalties for any omission. He is then subjected to the alternative of becoming bound with sufficient securities to the amount of 300 dollars for each passenger to relieve the charitable institutions of the country, during five years, from any burthen arising from the passengers. This would be a very serious undertaking, if it were likely to be enforced; but it appears to be merely enacted as an alternative for a real tax on immigrants; since the shipowners are relieved from it by payment of a dollar and a half per head on their passengers to the health commissioner. It is provided, however, that the state is not, under this commutation, to be burthened with permanent imbeciles; and there is a separate provision, that if any lunatic, idiot, deaf, dumb, blind, or infirm person, or any person who had been taken away in a state of permanent disease, is found in the vessel by the Commissioners of Emigration when making their inspection, the shipowners must come under security to the extent of 500 dollars to guarantee the state and all its institutions from liability for such passengers.

By a similar law of the state of Massachusetts, a tax of two dollars per head is laid on all healthy immigrants; and for each imbecile, bond must be given to the extent of 1000 dollars.

Free as are the institutions of our transatlantic brethren, they appear to be strong enough to protect the helpless emigrant from those to whom he is natural prey. Mr Minturin, an emigration commissioner of New York, astonished the Committee of the House of Lords on Emigration by his account of the extraordi-

* Of these 6932, six thousand three hundred and seventy-nine, or ninety-two per cent., were from Ireland.—Evidence of R. B. Minturin before the Committee of 1847-48.

nary powers vested in the magistrates to punish boarding-house keepers and 'forwarders,' as those are termed who contract to pass emigrants to the interior, for frauds. 'Is not that,' he was asked, 'a very large exercise of authority granted exclusively for the benefit of emigrants?' And he answered: 'It is an extraordinary power granted from the necessity of the case, as those people cannot wait the slow process of ordinary legal proceedings. They land at New York, and wish to pass immediately into the interior. The landlords took advantage of them, and exacted exorbitant rates from them during the short time they were in New York, and held their baggage till they paid them. The parties who had made their arrangements for passing into the country could not encounter this delay. The ordinary process of law would of course be naturally too tedious for them, and therefore the legislature has given the authorities this summary process. The keeper of the hotel is brought before the mayor or police magistrate, and, upon conviction, is fined, and an officer is authorised to take immediate charge of the baggage.'

Legal defects were, however, found to the operation of this simple and summary measure; for it is very difficult in America to enforce any law which a class of the citizens dislike. The state legislature grappled with the matter, however, and in 1848 passed 'An act for the protection of emigrants arriving in the state of New York'—establishing minute and strict regulations. By this act, enclosed docks are set apart for the exclusive landing of emigrant alien passengers. The passengers are to be conveyed, with their effects, from the emigrant vessels to these docks by lightermen, who are licensed, and who find security for their good conduct. Captains of vessels are bound, under a penalty of not less than 100 dollars, to take care that all steerage or second-cabin passengers—who are presumed to include the helpless emigrant class needing protection—shall be landed at these docks. Persons keeping boarding-houses for emigrants require to take out a licence, paying for it ten dollars a year, and finding security for good conduct. The keeper must hang up a list of prices for board and lodging, or for separate meals, in the English, German, Dutch, French, and Welsh languages. The boarding-house keeper is not entitled to detain the luggage of an emigrant, as his security; and if he attempt to do so, he becomes liable to penalties. It is probable that the keepers of these establishments, being thus deprived of a security which ordinary innkeepers enjoy, will insist on prepayment, or, at all events, on seeing that the persons they admit are able and willing to pay them.

No one is entitled to solicit emigrants, whether for lodging-houses or conveyances, without having a licence, for which he

pays twenty dollars a year, and gives security. Every licensed person must wear a badge or plate, conspicuously displayed, with the number of his licence, and the words 'licensed emigrant runner.' This is in conformity with a very useful American practice. It is enacted that 'every person who shall solicit alien emigrant passengers or others for the benefit of boarding-houses, passenger-offices, or forwarding-lines, upon any street, lane, alley, or upon any dock, pier, or public highway, or any other place within the corporate bounds of any city in this state, or upon any waters adjacent thereto, over which said cities may have jurisdiction, without such licence, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and shall be punished by imprisonment.' There is even an arrangement in the act for authorising a person appointed by the Emigration Commission to go on board of the vessel, and offer warnings and advice to the emigrants, before any other person is permitted to have access to them.

No one is entitled to book emigrant passengers, or take money from them, who does not keep a public office, paying a licence-duty of twenty-five dollars a year, and finding security. He must have a bill of rates conspicuously posted in the English, Dutch, French, German, and Welsh languages, and applicable as well to persons as to luggage per hundredweight. The Commissioners of Emigration are to see to the enforcement of the act; and by a regulation which is peculiarly American, each commissioner requires to make affidavit annually that he has had no concern, as a private speculation, with the boarding or conveying of any emigrants.

The manner in which emigrant families usually make their way from the landing port to their final destination is by contracting with a forwarder for the distance at least to which there are means of public conveyance. How far the above regulations have been effective for the protection of the class it would be perhaps difficult to discover; but it is clear that they must, if they are cautious and forewarned, have the matter much in their own power. They must forbear from dealing with persons who do not appear with the outward badges of their functions and privileges. The evils formerly complained of were, that the forwarder contracted with his dupe to convey him to a certain destination, and received the money, when he had no more right to get him admission to the public vehicles in the line than any other person. In short, he took the money under the pretence of being the agent or owner of the steamboat, railway, or whatever it might be, when he had no concern with it; and ere the poor dupe discovered it, he was at a distance, and friendless. Frequently contracts were taken to convey people to destinations to which there was no public conveyance at all; and so the helpless wanderer was set

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down on the outskirts of civilisation, with hundreds of miles of prairie or forest between him and the place of his ultimate destination. Some useful hints are given beneath on this subject.

It is impossible to obtain precise knowledge of the number of immigrants who settle annually in the United States. The record of land-sales is evidently no criterion, since many American citizens buy land, and many immigrants do not. The entries at the ports do not comprehend the large body who pass through the British dependencies in the north. Mr Chickering of Boston, who made an elaborate inquiry into the subject, filling up the blanks in the procurable returns with approximate estimates, gave as his belief that, down to 1847, the numbers, reckoning from June to June, were—1842, 151,660; 1843, 112,738; 1844, 111,910; 1845, 153,622; 1846, 220,576; and 1847, 300,000. Mr Chickering believed that the whole increase of the States by immigration from 1790 to 1840 exceeded the population of the States at the former period. But Germany and France of course have borne their share in this supply—a share small in comparison with Britain, though in late years there has been a considerable amount of systematic migration from Germany.

Of the arrivals of passengers in the States, lists are professed to be kept and published annually; but their completeness is very doubtful. The American Almanac for 1851 contains the lists for the year ending 30th September 1849. The general results are the following—Maine, 4775; New Hampshire, 142; Massachusetts, 29,780; Rhode Island, 110; New York, 213,736; Pennsylvania, 15,511; Maryland, 8072; Virginia, 372; South Carolina, 1008; Georgia, 209; Alabama, 172; Florida, 75; Louisiana, 25,209; Texas, 439—Total, 299,610. Of these it was known that 179,253 were males, and 119,915 were females, the sex of the others not being recorded. It will be seen that the arrivals in the southern states are comparatively few. The considerable number who are mentioned as entering Louisiana doubtless land at New Orleans, for the purpose of proceeding by steam up the Mississippi.

HINTS TO EMIGRANTS TO NEW YORK.

The following valuable document, containing directions for immigrants into New York, has lately been published in that city. It is dated 'Office of the Commissioners of Emigrants of the State of New York, New City Hall, Chambers Street, New York,

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August 1851,' and signed 'Gulian C. Verplanck, President of the Commissioners of Emigration, New York :—

'Passengers arriving at the port of New York with the intention of proceeding to the interior should make their stay in the city as short as possible, in order to save money. It will generally not be necessary for them to go to any hotel or inn, but the passage-tickets to the interior can be bought immediately, and the baggage be at once removed from the ship to the steamboat, towboat, or railway, some one of which starts every day throughout the year. This course saves not only much money for board, lodging, and carting, but also prevents many occasions for fraud. If passengers go to an inn or boarding-house, they should see at once whether a list of prices for board and lodging is posted up for their inspection, as is required by law. Never employ a cart that has no number painted on it, and be careful to note down the number. Always make a bargain for the price to be paid before engaging a cart to carry your baggage. The price allowed by law for a cartload any distance not over half a mile is 33 cents, and for each additional half mile one-third more. Among the impositions practised on emigrant-passengers none is more common than an overcharge in the rates of passage to the interior, against which there is no protection, except by a close attention to the following remarks, and by insisting on a strict adherence on the part of forwarders to the scale of prices established by the mayor of the city of New York and the Commissioners of Emigration, which will be found below. There are two principal routes to the interior from New York: one is by way of Albany and Buffalo, or by the New York and Erie Railway. The passage from New York to Albany costs from 25 to 50 cents (half a dollar.) From Albany there are two modes of conveyance to Buffalo—one by canal, which takes from 7 to 10 days, at 1½ dollars; the other by railway, going through in 36 hours, at 4 dollars; and no higher prices should be paid. The route to the south and west is by way of Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. The passage from New York to Philadelphia is 1 dollar 50 cents, and from there to Pittsburgh, 3 dollars to 5 dollars—making from New York to Pittsburgh from 4 dollars 50 cents to 6 dollars 50 cents. There is also a route to Pittsburgh by way of Albany in the summer season, which will cost 5 dollars 50 cents. On all these routes passengers have to find their own provisions, and consequently the difference in the cost between travelling by canal and railway is not as great as it appears at first, as the passengers by canal have to pay for a week's provisions more than those travelling by railway, besides losing time and being longer exposed to fraud. Passengers are advised in no event to engage their passage to distant small places that do not lie on the main route, but only to engage to the nearest main station, and from there to make a new engagement to their final place of destination. If not differently advised by the Emigration Society, and in all cases when passengers have not been able to consult these

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societies, they should never engage passage further than Buffalo or Pittsburgh, and there make a new contract. Otherwise their passage-tickets, though paid for, may prove good for nothing. Passengers are cautioned that baggage is very often stolen, and the owners should always keep an eye upon their effects, and not allow themselves to be enticed or bullied into giving the transportation of them to irresponsible people, or going into boarding-houses or forwarding-offices not of their own free selection. Emigrants should always decide, immediately upon their arrival, what they will do before they spend their small remaining means in the boarding-house, and they should generally proceed at once on their journey while they have the means. On their arrival here they should not give ear to any representations nor enter into any engagements without obtaining first the advice and counsel of either the Commissioners of Emigration, or the Emigrant Society of the nation to which they belong, or its Consul; and in inquiring for the office of the Society, or Consul, or the Commissioners, they should be careful not to be carried to the wrong place. There are many individuals sufficiently unscrupulous intentionally to mislead the stranger. If the latter, for instance, inquire after the agency of the German Society, or the Irish Emigrant Society, the person applied to will say that he is the agent, or that he will take the stranger to the office of the German Society; but instead of doing so, will take him to a place where he is almost sure to be defrauded. As a general rule, if the emigrant is urged to take passage, or has to pay for the advice he asks, he may take it for granted that he is not at the place where he wishes to be; and he should bear in mind to look for the name of the persons or office he is in search of at the door of the house into which he is shewn. All the foreign consuls and the emigrant societies, as well as the Commissioners of Emigration, have signs over the doors of their offices. The office of the German Society is No. 95 Greenwich Street; of the Irish Emigrant Society, at No. 29 Reade Street; and of the Commissioners of Emigration, in one of the public edifices of the city in the Park. — *N.B.* The Commissioners earnestly advise all emigrants who bring money with them to deposit it as soon as they arrive in the Emigrant Industrial Savings' Bank, No. 51 Chambers Street, opposite the Park. This institution was established by the legislature for the express purpose of affording to emigrants a safe place of deposit for their moneys, which they can draw out at pleasure whenever they want it; and, after a certain period, with interest added to it. Never keep money about your person or in your trunks. Evil persons may rob or commit worse crimes upon you. Take it to the Savings' Bank. Passengers while travelling should always be provided with small-silver change, as they may otherwise be more easily cheated on the way. Never take bank-notes, if you can avoid it, until you are able to judge of their value for yourselves, as there are many counterfeit and broken bank-notes in circulation. What is called a shilling in America is not more than sixpence sterling.'

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LABOUR.

In this country the trained artisan and the mere labourer who exercises his unintelligent strength are known to be distinct classes. It is popularly supposed that in the United States they are all mixed up together in a general easy prosperity; but this is a great mistake. The chief distinctions in the States are made by men's capacities for working and producing—the able, industrious, active, and ingenious man being well paid, while his inferior is ill paid, and has narrower chances of success. This is a primary principle which the members of the working-classes, when thinking of emigration, must not forget.

The prospects of the artisan or skilled worker will depend much on the question whether he intends to follow his trade, or, having realised a small sum by economy at home, crosses the Atlantic to find a better investment for it. If he proposes to follow the tide of emigration westward, and observe the opportunities that turn up, he may perhaps hit on some profitable occupation, in connection with the villages increasing into towns, which accompany the perpetual progress of new settlements. A man who has a little money, and that free use of his hands which an artisan must possess, may, in such a case, go on prospering until he become an important authority in the new state. He may do the same if he have funds enough, along with patience and capacity, to purchase and work an allotment near the centre of some youthful state, just supplied with a temporary government, and likely to be represented in Congress. Such and infinitely varied are the opportunities of the artisan class when they go to the States with a saved capital, however small. If they go without it, unless they are able workmen, they must contemplate a descent into the mere labour class. There is generally sufficient employment for all the members of this class in the States. None of them starve, and their wages are high. But they are not among the classes who go voluntarily abroad: they are helped over, and trust to those who have helped them away to smooth their path onwards. The times when there is an impulse to send them over are those of commercial depression and want of employment, and the suddenness of their transference finds the place they are sent to so unprepared to receive them, that it might sometimes be a question whether it would not be better to keep them at home, waiting for better times, than to shovel them out upon the shores of another country. In time, however, they become absorbed in the population, and get work. The artisan would not generally wish to be huddled into this class; but if he go out with insuffi-

cient capacities to compete with American workmen, it will be his necessary fate.

The position of the skilled artisan is the important one in the transference of labour from Britain to the United States. It is a common belief, that if a man does not receive the wages of a superior workman here, he had better go to America, where the people are less fastidious. He is dreadfully mistaken; and it is a mistake which has been the ruin of many tolerable workmen, of sober, saving habits, who have laid by enough to carry them over to the States, and have there found that they were nearly useless, and that they must sink into a subsidiary grade or come back.

The artisan who goes to America with the expectation of being employed in his own trade, should be a *first-rate workman*. If he be so, and if his trade be followed there, he is sure of employment and high wages. A good skilled artisan, however, is valuable here as well as in America; and before he leave the old country, he will do well to consider whether his trade, if it be a failing one on this side of the Atlantic, may not be utterly useless on the other. It is unsatisfactory to take lists of wages, since they shift rapidly, and are different in the several towns. An intelligent artisan will generally have some brother of the trade who has gone before him, and can give him information. If he has not some such means of acquiring distinct knowledge of the remuneration of his profession before emigrating to the States, he had better stay at home, as he may find that his occupation is overdone, or that he is far excelled by the local workers, and will be obliged to descend to the rank of the unskilled labourer.

The American cities have communication with all the world; and the newest shapes of workmanship, whether they may be called fashions or improvements, reach them much more rapidly than they do the secondary English towns. A bootmaker goes out to America from an English market-town—he finds that the merchants and the neighbouring farmers have got the Parisian fashions which had not been heard of in his native town, and will wear nothing else. A clockmaker becomes discontented with his fate, and goes to the States, where he finds that the reason why he has been slack of work at home is because the American clocks undersell the British. The advice is repeated—that the workman should take no general statements, but only go to the United States on ascertaining from good authority that he is wanted—that he can get employment at a high remuneration.

A high remuneration, speaking in a pecuniary sense, is necessary to the workman in the States. Unless he can make at least 40 per cent. more than he can in this country, he is not substantially better off. All natural productions are cheaper than they are at

home; but as to everything that obtains its value from industry—he must recollect that the inducement to his proceeding thither is the high remuneration of industry, and so he must be prepared to pay highly every one who works for him, in keeping house, in preparing his victuals, in making his clothes, and in keeping them clean. In fact, in the cities of the United States, all people who work are well paid, and therefore all who desire to participate in the general advantage must work hard and effectually themselves, and must be ready to afford a satisfactory proportion of what they so gain to those who minister in any shape to their wants.

It would scarcely serve any useful purpose on this occasion to go over the various trades, and endeavour to describe those most wanted. There are general rules, however, that seem to apply in the States, thus: that first-class workers in all the departments connected with dress and the furnishing of houses—as tailors, finishing hatters, French polishers, cabinetmakers, carvers and gilders, looking-glass framers, and the like—are sure of work if they be first-rate hands; but they may have persuaded themselves on this side of the Atlantic that they will be so on the other, and may find themselves wanting. When they are disappointed, they either find some inferior occupation in the States, from which, if they take heart and are prudent, they may rise to follow out some more lucrative calling—or they get disheartened, and either spend a miserable existence in some of the Atlantic cities, or, coming home, rail against democracy, and become turbulent and troublesome.

The rapidity with which they work and do everything else is a characteristic of the inhabitants of the States. The artisan must be prepared, if he be better off there, to put more work through his hand. The number of hours given to the employers has been long a matter of dispute there. In fact, hours of labour are so important in America that either party fights about them as a very valuable commodity. The employer wanting the hours increased—the workman wishing them decreased. For highly-skilled artisans, indefinite remuneration would be given if they could indefinitely prolong their hours of work. Unfortunately the employers, in the spirit of cupidity, sought to fix the remuneration while they prolonged the hours, and a wretched conflict between the ‘workies,’ as they were called, and the capitalists was the consequence. Both parties had the same interests, and it would have been better for them to have found out a means of mutual aggrandisement than of mutual injury.

The rapidity with which everything is done in the States is a feature that it will be fatal in the artisan to overlook. If he cannot work fast he need not go there. An intelligent artisan, who

THE UNITED STATES.

had been some years in the States, and published in 1840 'The British Mechanics' and Labourers' Handbook,' speaks descriptively of the rapid and 'ridding' way in which the American mechanic gets through his work. He acts, not like a man who wants employment, but like one who wants to get through with what he is at. The Englishman makes the best immigrant mechanic; the Irishman the worst. In fact the Irish, who are almost all from the south, and sent across the Atlantic to be got rid of, are subjected to the humblest labours, or to the menial occupation of the domestic servant. The Irishman is now the Swiss of the States. The situation of the Scottish artisan is peculiar—he is not so rapid a workman as the Englishman, but his knowledge beyond his merely handwork, and his adaptability to the habits of strangers, generally tempt him out of his trade into higher occupations.

There is one essential question to be kept in view by the artisan before he proceeds to the States—Can he trust to himself absolutely in the matter of sobriety? If he cannot, he is a gone man *there*. The temptations to excess are great and ceaseless, the finest spirits being procurable for less than half the price of the most wretched English gin. At the same time drunkards are not so calmly tolerated as they are at home. The tone and habits of the artisan order are against them; and instead of being supported by their fellow-workmen, they are trampled under foot. The American is not always utterly abstemious, but he is in general moderate; and he despises the sot who cannot preserve his week's pay. He himself preserves it not only for the wants of the next week, but for the savings' bank. America is the home of the industrious, the enterprising, the temperate, the steady. Nowhere is intelligence or good conduct more highly prized. Idleness, pride of birth, and depravity, meet no countenance. In a word, no one need cross the Atlantic unless possessing hands and a will to work, along with an earnest determination to achieve respectability of character.



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